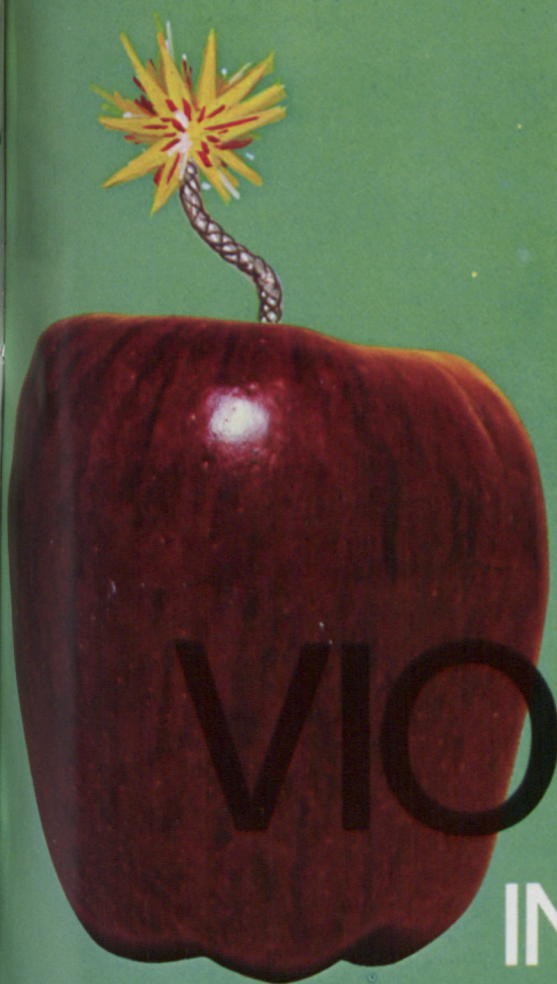
TODAY'S EDUCATION
Journal of the NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
April-May 1980

SOCIAL STUDIES EDITION



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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 54

We're looking for people to write children's books

Writing for children is the perfect way to take up writing, says the author of 53 children's books. Your ideas come right out of your own experience. And while it's still a challenge, it's probably the straightest possible line between you and publication – if you're qualified to seek the success this rewarding field offers.

By Alvin Tresselt, Dean of Faculty

If you want to write and get published, I can't think of a better way to do it than writing books and stories for children and teenagers. Ideas flow naturally right out of your own life. While it's still a challenge, the odds of getting that first unforgettable check from a juvenile publisher are better than they are from just about any other kind of publisher I know.

Later on, you may get other checks from other publishers. But right now, the object is to begin — to break into print — to learn the feeling of writing and selling your work and seeing your name in type. After that, you can decide if you want your writing to take another direction.

But after 30 years of editing, publishing, and teaching (and 53 books) I can tell you this: you'll go a long way before you find anything as rewarding as writing for young readers.

Your words will never sound as sweet as they do from the lips of a child reading your books and stories. And the joy of creating books and stories that young people 'really dig' is an experience you'll never have anywhere else. (In this age of boob tube illiteracy, convenient morality, and plastic values, do you know of *a more important audience?)*

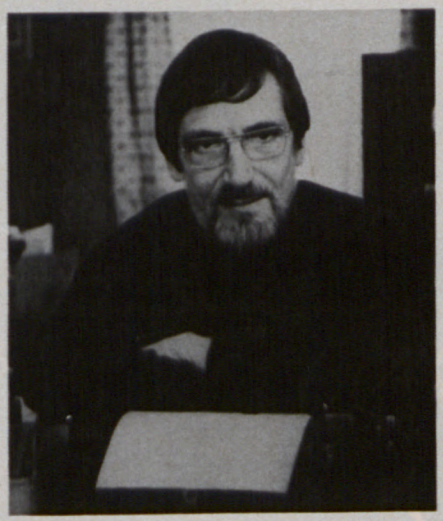
But, that's not all. The financial rewards go far beyond most people's expectations because there's a surprisingly big market out there for writers who are trained to crack it. More than 130 million young people's books are purchased each year. Between 2,000 and 2,500 new titles appear annually and new authors account for as many as half of them.

There are also 250 monthly magazines looking for material for young readers. You can imagine how much writing it takes just to keep them going!

'Am I really qualified?'

Yet two big questions bedevil nearly every would-be writer: "Am I really qualified?" and "How can I get started?"

This is our definition of a "qualified person": It's someone with an aptitude for writing who can take constructive criticism, learn from it, and turn it into a professional performance. That's the only kind of person we're looking for. The reasons are simple: our reputation is built on success, and if prospective students don't have the earmarks of success, we probably can't help them. And we tell them so. It's only fair to both of us.



Alvin Tresselt was Vice President and Executive Editor of Parents' Magazine Press, the first editor of *Humpty Dumpty's Magazine for Children*, and has served on the board of the Author's Guild. His 53 books for young readers have sold over two million copies.

To help us spot potential authors, we've developed a revealing test for writing aptitude. It's free, and we don't charge for our evaluation. But no one gets into the Institute without passing it. Those who pass and enroll receive our promise: You will complete at least one manuscript ready to submit to a publisher by the time you finish the Course.

When we teach, you learn

I've learned a lot about writing for children and I love it. Now I'm passing my knowledge on to my students so they can profit from it. When I'm not writing my own children's books I spend my time at The Institute of Children's Literature, a workshop for writers that does only one thing and does it better than any other school or college or university of its kind: It trains qualified people to write for the young reader.

This is the way I work with my students, and my fellow instructors — all of whom are experienced writers or editors — work more or less the same way.

When you're ready — at your own time and your own pace — you send your assignment to me and I read it and reread it to get everything out of it you've put into it. Then I edit your assignment with a red pencil just the way a publishing house editor would — if he had the time. I return it along with a detailed letter explaining my comments. I tell you what your strong points are, what your weaknesses are, and just what you can do to improve. It's a matter of push and pull. You push and I pull and between us both, you learn to write.

The proof of the pudding

This method really works. I wouldn't spend five minutes at it if it didn't. The proof of the pudding is that many of our students break into print even before they finish the Course.

Kathleen Huber, N.Y., N.Y., writes: "Regarding my sale to *Highlights for Children* for $125, it started out as an assignment for the Institute, and *Highlights* was only the second magazine I had sent it to. Certainly your Course made this sale possible. It may be the best investment I ever made."

A.M. Hummel, Danville, Pa., writes "When *Highlights for Children* accepted my short story — Assignment #8 in the Course, and sent me a $65 check, I could hardly believe it! Then, within a week, I got another check and a go-ahead assignment for a second piece."

'I won first prize of $400 for a Course assignment!'

"Before taking your Course (which I checked out with the National Better Business Bureau), the short stories I scribbled for my two tiny tots never caught an editor's fancy," writes Emily Burns of Salem, Oregon.

"My first sale, to *National Catholic Weekly*, was a Course assignment. Then I submitted another Course assignment in a writer's competition and won first prize of $400!"

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To find qualified men and women with an aptitude for writing, the Faculty and Consultants of the Institute have prepared a four-page Writing Aptitude Test. It is offered free and will be professionally evaluated at no cost to you by our staff.

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The Institute of Children's Literature
Redding Ridge, Connecticut 06876

Dear Mr. Tresselt: **E 70**

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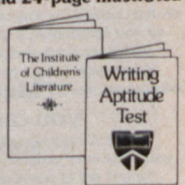

Mr. Mrs. Ms. Miss

Please circle one and print name clearly

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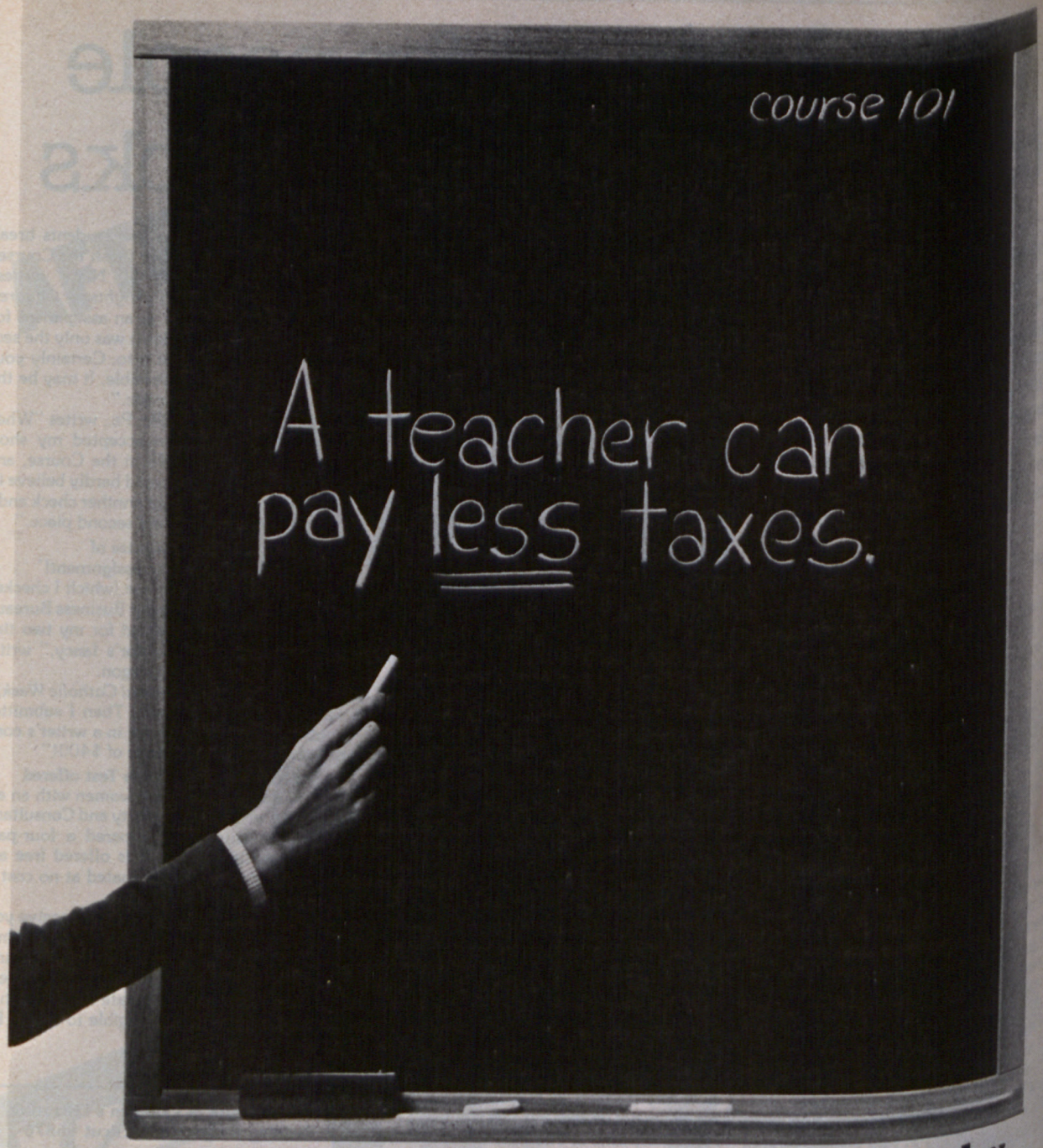
State **Zip**

Approved: State of Connecticut Board of Education



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TODAY'S EDUCATION

The Journal of the NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
April-May 1980, Volume 69, Number 2

SOCIAL STUDIES EDITION

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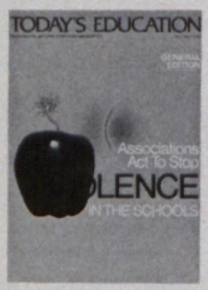
In This Issue

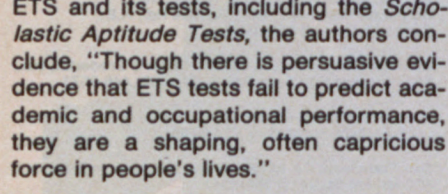


Violence in today's schools! What is its nature? How extensive is it? What is being *done* about it?

This is the subject of this issue's cover and the lead feature in all three editions—general, elementary, and social studies.

NEA President Willard McGuire starts the feature by telling of NEA's concerns and actions regarding this national problem. His article is followed by a discussion of current research on the problem, and the feature concludes with reports about what various education associations are doing to alleviate the situation in their schools.

You'll also find in all three editions another in our series of articles on testing. This one is by Allan Nairn and associates and is a summary of their recent report on the Educational Testing Service for Ralph Nader. After a review of ETS and its tests, including the *Scholastic Aptitude Tests,* the authors conclude, "Though there is persuasive evidence that ETS tests fail to predict academic and occupational performance, they are a shaping, often capricious force in people's lives."



If you received the General Edition, your magazine contains a warning by John Goodlad: "The common school, I fear, fares badly today. Threatened externally by voucher plans and special interests, it has crumbled internally . . . because of our failing to take seriously Bruner's inspiring thesis that '. . . any subject can be taught in some intellectually honest form to any child at any stage of development.' "

Goodlad calls for restoring some commonness to the common school in the 1980's, and he says teachers and other educators must lead the way. "I believe that we have little other than ourselves and our own capabilities to fear."

Another article in the General Edition is one by Ethel Heins entitled "From Reading to Literacy." Her thesis is that "we can surely try, through literature, to irrigate the deserts of young minds and to reclaim the wastelands of boredom in which so many children are hopelessly lost."

The multi-page feature in the General Edition deals with Vocational Education and the Handicapped. It tells of handicapped youngsters finding places for themselves in society through vocational education. A New Jersey author answers questions teachers have about integrating the handicapped in vocational classes, and three federal laws that are changing the national outlook for the handicapped are reviewed.

If you received the Elementary Edition, your magazine contains a multi-page feature on the Arts and Teaching, designed by our elementary consultant, Monroe Cohen, former editor of *Childhood Education.* Articles in the feature present various approaches to the idea that good elementary teachers "do not confine art periods to Friday afternoons or base writing on phony exercises or treat reading as a series of dull drills. They create, alongside children, a classroom world of aesthetic quality and aesthetic expression."

In one article in this feature, the author calls for classrooms that are studio-workshops amply stocked with materials that invite cross-connections in learning. In another, the author describes an in-service creative arts workshop, which helps teachers recover a childlike freshness of perception and expression.

In another, the author takes us into classrooms where teachers and children explore words and ideas together, deepening their sensibilities and finding their own expressive forms.

In yet another article, the author describes ways to make writing from personal experience a central element in the life of every school. He suggests what a writing-oriented school would be like.

If you received the Social Studies Edition, your magazine includes articles planned by our social studies consultant, Merrill Hartshorn, executive secretary emeritus of the National Council for the Social Studies. The theme of this material is Teaching Global Perspectives and World History in the 80's.

In the first part of the social studies material, the author says, "We need the same kind of intellectual orientation toward teaching about the world that we have toward teaching about the United States. We do not teach about the United States as a motley collection of separate states. Rather, we help students to see the United States as a single, complex society in which they are participants. We need to develop the same approach to teaching about the world—one that helps students to see the world as a single, complex system in which they are inescapably a part."

In another part of this feature, another author, in discussing the teaching of world history, says, "The rehabilitation of the world history course may be just around the corner. A growing percentage of Americans are realizing, albeit reluctantly, that our future is closely tied to events in other parts of the world. As a result, some politicians, business leaders, and educators are calling for courses that increase students' familiarity with other cultures and peoples."

The author believes the exact content of a world history course must be left to teachers, who should keep his proposed guidelines in mind as they develop and organize these courses.

As you read this issue, a readership study is being conducted by Hays Communications to help us plan our future issues. Maybe you are one of the scientifically selected sample and have received a questionnaire. If so, thanks for filling it out and returning it promptly. If you have not been involved in the study, please send us your reactions anyway. We want to know what you think about the specialized editions in particular and the magazine in general.

—WAG.

Trends

Californians Reject Parochiaid and Voucher Plans

Three initiatives to amend the California state constitution to allow state funding of nonpublic schools have failed to get enough signatures to get on the ballot. None came close to gathering the more than 500,000 voters' signatures needed.

One plan would have set up a complicated voucher plan to provide up to $650 million a year to nonpublic schools. A second, sponsored by the National Taxpayers Union, would have set up a tuition tax credit plan; the third plan would have abolished all public education in the state.

Parochiaid and voucher plans lost in all of the 11 referendum votes on the subject in various states between 1967 and 1978.

IQ Test Ruled Illegal for Retardation Screening

IQ tests must not be used to place students in classes for the mentally retarded, a federal district court in California has ruled. The judge made permanent a 1974 injunction against such use of the tests and ordered the state to reevaluate all Black pupils who had been placed in classes for the mentally retarded as a result of the tests.

The case, *Larry P.* v. *Wilson Riles and the State Board of Education,* concerned six Black children who had been placed in classes for the mentally retarded because of IQ test results and then rediagnosed as normal.

NEA President Attacks South African *Apartheid*

NEA President Willard McGuire has called attention to the violations of human rights in South Africa and to what he termed "an ominous trend" in the judicial practices of that country.

Citing the 1979 world report of Amnesty International, McGuire pointed out that the execution of Solomon Mahlangu, a 22-year-old Black man, was the first hanging of a political prisoner since the 1960's.

Amnesty International's 1979 report condemns South Africa for the continuation of waves of detentions, bannings, preventive detentions, indiscriminate arrests, detentions without trial, political trials, holding of prisoners incommunicado for longer than a year, and torture. Most of those affected are Black.

In 1978, according to Amnesty, South Africa hanged 132 persons, all but one of them Black.

College Enrollment May Shrink, Change in Composition

Undergraduate enrollment in U.S. colleges and universities may fall 5 to 15 percent during the next two decades, according to the Carnegie Council on Policy Studies in Higher Education.

By the year 2000, says the Council, student bodies will include "more women than men, as many people over 21 as 21 and under, nearly as many part-time as full-time attendees, and one-quarter of all students will be members of minorities."

The Council is publishing its predictions in *Three Thousand Futures: The Next 20 Years in Higher Education.*

Poor Children in South Lack Social Services

Of 4 million Southern children living at or below poverty level in 1975, fewer than 2 million received cash benefits from Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC), and only 2.2 million received Medicaid benefits, according to the federal Administration for Children, Youth, and Families (ACYF). In 1977, the average monthly AFDC benefit was $58 per child in the South, $127 outside the South.

Two out of every 5 poor children in this country live in the South. The overall poverty rate among Southern children is 21 percent, says ACYF, while outside the South, it is 13 percent.

White Collar Employment Is Likely To Rise

More than half of the estimated 66.4 million job openings available between 1978 and 1990 will be in white-collar occupations—professional, technical, managerial, sales, and clerical, says the U.S. Department of Labor. Nearly 20 million of those vacancies will be in new jobs, according to the Department's *1980-81 Occupational Outlook Handbook.*

About 55 percent of the jobs will be white collar, 24 percent will be blue collar, 18 percent will be in service occupations, and 2 percent will be in farming.

More scientists, engineers, and technicians will be needed for energy production, mass transportation, and environmental protection; more health workers will be needed; and the rise in family incomes will provide more jobs for cooks, cosmetologists, and other personal service workers.

Nevertheless, 1 in 4 future college graduates will be unable to find work that requires a degree.

Few Go Straight Through College

Only 4 out of 10 entering college freshmen are likely to receive a bachelor's degree from the same institution within four years, according to the American Council on Education (ACE). Three out of 10 probably will never graduate, although others will transfer or return to complete their studies.

Major reasons for dropping out are financial problems, health problems, family responsibilities, and changes in educational goals, says ACE.

Runaway Programs: Who Uses Them?

Most of the teenagers who used federally funded runaway programs in fiscal 1978 were between 14 and 17 years old, and 15- and 16-year-olds used the programs most of all, according to the federal Administration for Children, Youth, and Families (ACYF).

Although a 1976 survey found that only 47 percent of runaways were girls, said ACYF, girls constituted 60 percent of those using the programs. Among the teenagers served, 45 percent had run away, 15 percent had left home by agreement, and 12 percent had been pushed out. Others were living at home and had other problems.

Major reasons given for seeking help were poor communication with a parent, parental strictness, truancy, emotional neglect, and personal emotional problems.

ACYF operates a toll-free hot-line, the National Runaway Switchboard. For information, write Phil Orticke, Youth Development Bureau, ACYF, P.O. Box 1182, Washington, DC 20013.

Researchers Seek Minority Apprentices

The federal Apprenticeship Program for Minority High School Students is to provide at least 1,000 summer jobs this year. Students will work in universities, federal labs, and research centers with scientists and engineers who have volunteered to be sponsors.

Interested high school students or their teachers can get information on the program from the Office of Science and Technology Policy, Old Executive Office Building, 17th and Pennsylvania Ave., N.W., Washington, DC 20500.

April 22 Is Earth Day

April 22 is the tenth anniversary of the first Earth Day. In 10 years, the environment movement has grown tremendously and produced major improve-

Trends
(continued)

ments in the quality of life in this country, but much more must be done. Disposal of toxic substances is only one of the problems facing environmentalists now.

For a list of ideas on the celebration of Earth Day in elementary and secondary schools, write Earth Day '80, 1638 R St., N.W., Suite #1, Washington, DC 20009, or call (202) 293-2550.

Schools Cut Energy Use

Energy use in schools dropped 35 percent in the last five years, according to the American Association of School Administrators. Reduced consumption saved taxpayers more than $1 billion last year, "enough to pay 80,000 teachers," said AASA.

Most of the reduction came from changes in operation and maintenance, such as altering buildings and reducing heating and cooling.

Districts with enrollments of more than 5,000 used almost 12 percent less fuel per student than smaller districts, said AASA, probably because they had professional help in cutting their fuel use.

Center for Bilingual Research Opens in California

The National Institute of Education has set up a national Center for Bilingual Research at the Southwest Regional Laboratory for Educational Research and Development in California. It is the first major federally funded institution devoted to research on teaching and learning in bilingual settings.

The Center will provide an opportunity for researchers, practitioners, and members of bilingual communities to take part in research that can benefit bilingual education. Research will be in language acquisition, language use, and bilingual schooling. The Center hopes the research will provide a means of improving bilingual classroom procedures and materials.

For more information, write Reynaldo Macías at the National Institute of Education, Room 818, 1200 19th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20208.

Treaty To Ease Student Mobility

More than 30 nations have signed a treaty that will ease the movement of students and scholars across national boundaries. The treaty governs mutual recognition of diplomas as valid academic credentials in the nations taking part. It also grants the holders of the diplomas the same rights as people in the host country who hold comparable diplomas.

The treaty will not bind the United States unless the Senate ratifies it. When ratified, it will not bind U.S. institutions to accept any student from another signatory country.

The treaty was signed at a meeting of representatives from UNESCO's European region, which includes Israel, Canada, and the United States, as well as the European nations.

Voting Drive Seeks Students

A voter registration campaign is seeking to increase voter participation among the 3 million young people who will graduate from high school in June. The National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP), sponsor of the drive, hopes to do this by providing greater access to voter registration and a voter education curriculum.

In 20 states, school principals can be designated as voting registrars; elsewhere, NASSP is encouraging local election officials to visit high schools and set up registration programs there.

NASSP's six-week voter curriculum outlines the history of the vote in the United States.

For more information, write the Office of Student Activities, NASSP, 1904 Association Dr., Reston, VA 22091.

Increases in Public Institutions' Tuition Run Behind Inflation Rate

Average charges for tuition, fees, and room and board at state colleges and universities this year increased at a slower rate than did the Consumer Price Index, according to the American Association of State Colleges and Universities (AASCU). AASCU thinks this may be why enrollment at member institutions rose 2 percent instead of declining.

Average total charges for undergraduates who were state residents rose 9.2 percent between 1978-79 and 1979-80, while the Consumer Price Index rose 12.4 percent between September 1978 and September 1979. Average tuition for these undergraduates rose 6.6 percent, while their room and board charges rose 10.4 percent.

Women's Employment, Education Increase

Women's status changed in several important ways in the last decade, reports the Women's Bureau of the U.S. Department of Labor. For the first time, more women worked outside than inside their homes—51.9 percent in October 1979, up from 43.4 percent in 1970. During the decade, 2 million minority women, 16 percent of all the women workers, entered the labor force.

Between 1970 and 1979, women's share of managerial and administrative jobs rose from 16 percent to 25 percent. Among professional and technical workers, the proportion of women rose from 39 to 43 percent; among skilled craft workers, from 3 to 6 percent.

Women's educational attainment came to equal that of their male counterparts—12.6 years of school for both men and women workers.

College Athletic Aid Must Match Sex Ratio

Colleges and universities must make financial aid available to men and women athletes in proportion to their participation in athletics programs, according to Patricia Roberts Harris, who made the announcement last winter as Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare. "If 70 percent of a school's athletes are male, they are entitled to 70 percent of the financial aid dollars their school makes available," Harris explained.

In determining compliance with Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, the government will be looking at such elements of the athletic program as provision of equipment, scheduling of games and practices, allocation of travel expenses, opportunities for coaching, medical and dental services, and publicity. Teams do not have to be integrated by sex, and the same sports do not have to be offered to men and women.

(For more information on this subject, see "The Teacher and the Law," which appears in this issue.)

College Freshmen Give Priority to Income

The 1979-80 college freshmen are more interested in making money and being financially well-off than any other entering class in recent years, according to the fourteenth annual survey of entering freshmen conducted by the University of California at Los Angeles and the American Council on Education.

"Being very well-off financially" is a very important goal in life, reported 62.1 percent of freshmen this year as compared to only 43.5 percent of freshmen in 1967. A very important reason for deciding to go to college was "to be able to make more money," said 63.4 percent in 1979, 49.9 percent in 1971.

ARE YOU RUBBER-STAMPING YOUR STUDENTS INTO COLLEGE?

As a high school teacher or counselor, you'd probably like to see a large percentage of your students go on to college. Sometimes, this may become nothing more than a numbers game.

You know that not everyone is meant for college immediately after high school. Some of your students might be better off spending a few years in the Army, where they could learn an important skill, sample college in their spare time, and find out what they really want to do.

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TODAY'S ARMY IS AN EDUCATION, TOO.

CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 49

The Teacher as a Consumer

Bargain Air Fares

By THEODORE O. CRON
Professor of Consumer Journalism, George Washington University, Washington, DC; Former Consumer Education Coordinator for the Federal Trade Commission.

Low-cost air travel is here, thanks to airline "deregulation." Or perhaps it may be more accurate to say "lower cost air travel than would otherwise have been the case"—considering the periodic fare increases made necessary by rises in fuel prices. At any rate, old-fashioned marketplace competition has pretty much replaced government rules on fares. But it won't provide a bargain automatically to the traveler who overlooks the subtleties of shopping for low-cost air fares.

If you're thinking about a bargain vacation during the summer holidays, start planning now, for the key to competitive air fares is *time.* You can have your pick of low fares if you plan far enough in advance—up to 60 days at least.

First, whether you consult a travel agent or the airlines themselves (on their "800" WATS-line numbers if they do not have ticket offices in your locality), get as much information as you can. Check with at least three and in some big cities, as many as seven different airlines. Don't overlook the smaller regional airlines; some of them have the most competitive fares available. This first round should give you a sense of the "market" between or among the destination points of your trip.

Dollars alone, however, should not be the sole criterion for choosing a flight. A few airlines, for example, try to divert passenger traffic to less crowded, often out-of-the-way terminals where their airport costs are lower. Make sure you know and can take advantage of the airport location (and flight time) before you pay for a discounted fare. Otherwise, the taxi fare to the airfield may wipe out what would otherwise be savings in air fare.

Often travelers have last-minute complications that involve changes in their travel plans. Remember that most airlines will not transfer special low-cost fares from your original flight to another one and that in some cases, there may be cancellation penalties on discount fares. Ask an agent what the airline's policy is regarding such a change in your travel plans.

An airline ticket is a contract: The line will provide a specified travel service for the sum you paid. If you get what you believe is a bargain fare, pay for it as soon as you can. If there is a rise in that particular fare before the date of your flight—and there may be, considering the continuous increases in fuel prices—you will generally not be asked to pay the difference: Your contract has been reserved and paid for.

But what is the best method of payment? Cash and credit card payments are the simplest to undo if you have to cancel. In either case, you must return the unused ticket to the airline's ticket agent. If you paid cash, the agent can usually give you an immediate cash refund. If you paid by credit card, the agent will have an offsetting credit equivalent to the price of your ticket applied to your account. Remember, if you string out repayment on a credit card after you've been billed, you may be paying 18 percent interest per year on the unpaid balance—and negating the bargain you received on your air fare.

If you paid by personal check, your refund request may have to be processed through the airline's headquarters, a process that may take several weeks. In this case, your refund would probably be mailed to you.

If you are not canceling but just switching flights, make sure the value of your old ticket is applied to your new purchase and, if you're using a credit card, that the agent only writes up a slip for the difference in cost (either a credit or an additional charge). If you don't insist on this, you may end up with *two* sets of tickets charged to you.

In the scramble to fill seats on all flights, most airlines overbook. It's almost a mathematical certainty that some people will cancel out on each flight. Airline personnel at the check-in counter usually know when a flight has been oversold. If, just prior to takeoff, they see that the "shows" are outnumbering the seats, they will offer passengers the chance to be bumped voluntarily for compensation. The amount of compensation is negotiable.

Before you volunteer for "bumping pay," make sure the next flight with a *confirmed* reservation is acceptable to you. If you have a bargain fare, make sure you won't lose it by staying behind. Don't settle for standby or waiting-list status; you may never leave the airport. And if the next flight is the next day, find out if the airline will pay for meals, a phone call or telegram, and overnight accommodations. If it won't, your "bumping pay" may be quickly eaten up by the essentials.

If you are involuntarily bumped, the airline is required to give you a written statement of its policy and the full price of your ticket up to a maximum of $200. If you must wait more than two hours for the next domestic flight out (four hours for international flights), you will receive *twice* the price of your ticket. You *keep* your original ticket to use on your eventual flight or for a refund if it never get off the ground.

Involuntary bumping can cost you more than twice the price of your ticket. If missed prepaid sports events or tours, canceled prepaid hotel reservations, missed lectures or classes related to your continuing education. Some of these may qualify as "consequential damages" you'll want to collect from the airline; others may not be claimable. If you intend to pursue an involuntary bumping complaint because you believe the costs to you far outweigh the ticket compensation offered, do not sign the check the airline gives you. If you do cash it, you will probably forfeit your chance to negotiate a larger payment or to sue for consequential damages later.

That's right—sue. Most complaints against airlines involve tickets, baggage, service, or flight delays and can be negotiated to a settlement with the line's consumer complaint department. But if you can't get satisfaction, you can usually sue in small claims court. Any airline that authorizes at least one agent to sell its tickets in your state can be sued in your state's small claims court.

Another friend of the airline passenger is the Civil Aeronautics Board (CAB)—at least until 1985, when it is to go out of business. For help or further information, contact the nearest CAB field office (Anchorage, Alaska; San Francisco; Fort Worth, Texas; Miami, Florida; New York; Des Plaines, Illinois) or write the Bureau of Consumer Protection, CAB, Washington, DC 20428. □

NEA Special Services has developed a *Complete Travel Guide for Educators.* The 48-page booklet is available free to members while supplies last. To obtain a copy, write Travel Guide, NEA Special Services, Rm. 404E, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

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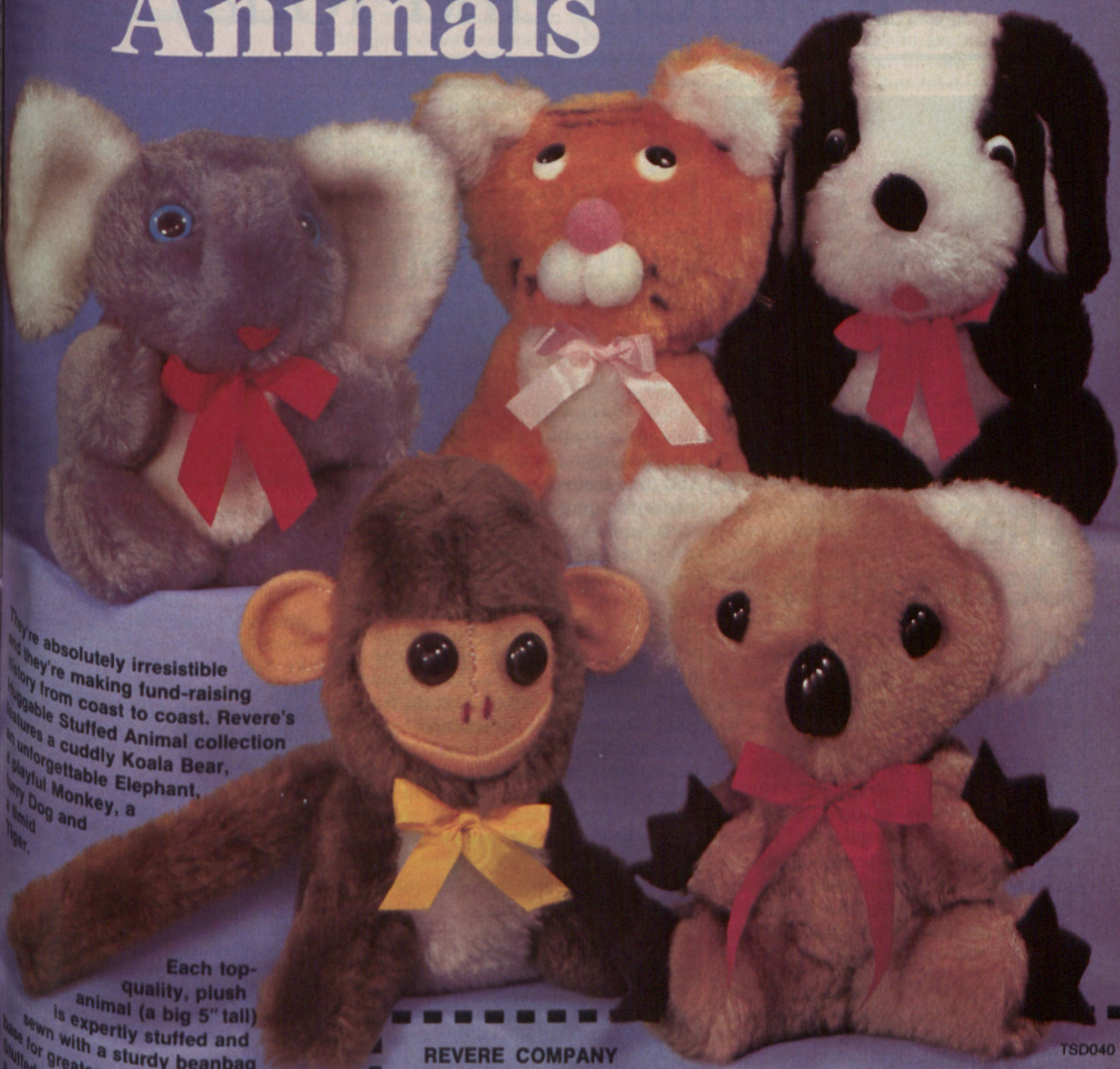

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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 35

Letters

Ideas and opinions in this feature are those of the writers and not necessarily of the NEA. "Letters" is primarily a forum for NEA members. If you are currently a member, please paste the mailing label from a recent copy of Today's Education *at the top of your letter. Also indicate your school, position, and home address.*

Comments on Chris Rogers

I found the interview with Chris Rogers, a teacher who teaches from a wheelchair, of considerable interest ("Meet Chris Rogers," February-March).

Clearly, she and I have much in common. While we have never met, I know that she knows as thoroughly as I that nothing is more important than helping others to use fully all their capabilities. We both have had to overcome handicaps.

Ms. Rogers, I salute you.

—Max Cleland, *administrator of veterans affairs, Veterans Administration, Washington, DC.*

Editor's Note: Mr. Cleland, who lost both legs and his right forearm in the Vietnam war, is the youngest person to head the Veterans Administration since its inception in 1930.

Ms. Rogers comes across as a capable, dedicated teacher—a professional who cares deeply about her work. As a handicapped person myself, I would like to make several observations about the interview with Chris Rogers.

Ms. Rogers says she needs a full-time aide to help with her class because of her disability, which results from multiple sclerosis. Such accommodation is not necessary for many other disabled teachers. It is important that school officials who may work with handicapped teachers not presume that all of them will need the same accommodation. Doing what is necessary in each situation is what is important.

Ms. Rogers says she is not involved in civil rights groups for the handicapped. She says, "I try to relate to most people on a daily basis, and I don't identify with other handicapped people, however, are committed deeply to civil rights efforts that will enable us to travel about freely and create better societal attitudes toward us. There is a time for us to identify with other disabled people and a time for us to identify with the larger human family of which we are a part. At the present time, the solidarity of handicapped people is necessary.

In the introduction to the interview, the interviewer refers to Ms. Rogers as being a "victim" of multiple sclerosis. I feel it is preferable to refer to someone as "having" a disability or disorder such as multiple sclerosis, rather than as being a victim of it. *Victim* has extremely negative connotations of helplessness, dependency, and inability—all of which are misleading.

—Lynn Park, *chief, Public Contact Group, Office of Communications, The President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped, Washington, DC; former NEA staff member.*

How fortunate that Ms. Rogers' colleagues and students are learning firsthand that her physically handicapping condition does not make her a less sensitive or less capable teacher than she would be if she had no handicap.

Congratulations to the administration that recognizes a good teacher and makes accommodations so she can continue to be an asset to the profession.

—Vicki Woodburn, *resource teacher for the acoustically handicapped, Lincoln (Nebraska) Public Schools.*

Project for Disabled in Education

The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) has announced the start of a one-year project titled Section 504 and Teacher Education. The purpose of the project is to identify and collect information on disabled persons in the profession of education. The information collected will be used to identify barriers that obstruct the entry and full participation of disabled persons from training and employment as teachers and administrators.

In order to ensure the success of the project, AACTE needs the expert consultation of disabled individuals in the education profession; disabled individuals who work in areas of education other than teaching and administration, such as federal, state, and local education agency employees; and disabled individuals who have been prevented or restricted from training or employment in education due to their disability. If you fit one of these categories and are willing to participate, write to Section 504 and Teacher Education Project, AACTE, Suite 610, One Dupont Circle, N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

—Ralph Cyr *and* Diane Merchant, *co-directors, Section 504 and Teacher Education Project, AACTE.*

Testing and the Truth

State Senator Kenneth P. LaValle's article, "Truth in Testing" (February-March) is an excellent explication of the law he introduced in New York State and the rationale behind it.

One possible outcome of this new law is that test takers might now take issue not simply with computer errors, but with the validity of the "right" answers themselves. Supposedly "correct" answers might, in fact, turn out to be debatable.

Researchers have long pointed out ambiguities in test questions, particularly in the areas of vocabulary and language. The corollary of this is that the ability to choose the "correct" answer is not fully the result of superior logic and training but also the result of initiation into the world of testing.

Once students (and their teachers) can see their own answers juxtaposed with "correct" ones, they will have a new option: to disagree with those answers. This could be both administratively complicating and educationally useful. Questioning "right" answers is and always has been a basic educational activity.

—Brenda S. Engel, *co-director, Program Evaluation and Research Group, Lesley College, Cambridge, Massachusetts.*

Censoring the Student Press

As a long-time journalism teacher, I found Michael D. Simpson's article, "What About the Student Press?" (February-March), highly gratifying.

Two aspects of Mr. Simpson's article especially please me.

The first is his emphasis on the need for publications advisers to educate school administrators about the First Amendment rights of student journalists. Administrators often lack an understanding of news media, whether in the school or in the community.

The second is his inclusion of examples of administrative pressures on teacher-sponsors to censor student newspapers. Your publishing these examples of malpractice in a magazine as widely circulated as *Today's Education* will surely put fear of the law into principals who see passing the buck as a way out of a dilemma.

—Gunnar Horn, *retired teacher, Omaha, Nebraska.*

The Tibbettses Take Christenbury to Task

In your April-May 1979 issue, English

(continued on page 78)

Research Clues

By JOHN H. HOLLIFIELD
Assistant Director, Center for Social Organization of Schools, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore.

How do the audio, visual, and pacing elements of television viewing affect children?

The authors examine how these elements of television affect children's attention, comprehension, and social behavior. They find that the elements that attract and hold children's attention most effectively are nonverbal auditory techniques (sound effects, peculiar voices), action, and frequent changes or rapid pace. They tentatively conclude that children's comprehension of content may be increased if the attention-getting elements focus on central rather than incidental content. And they find that high action, fast-paced television segments, even if they do not portray violence, lead to a general state of arousal in children that can lead to increased aggression. The authors stress, however, that a general state of arousal may also lead to increases in appropriate or prosocial forms of behavior if these are better suited to the situation.

Most reviews of research on the effects of television on children report contradictory findings. This review reports a contradictory situation—that is, that television, which has become an integral part of almost all children's lives, must have some kinds of effects (it's been blamed for everything from declining achievement scores to the disintegration of the family), but research can find no strong, dramatic specific effects. Still, classroom teachers need to be aware of the research, simply because television viewing is an important common component of almost every student's background.

See Aletha Huston-Stein and John C. Wright. "Children and Television: Effects of the Medium, Its Content and Its Form." *Journal of Research and Development in Education* 13: 20-30; No. 1, 1979.

Does age of entrance affect school achievement?

Yes, in the early grades. This study found that students who were six years old when they entered school achieved higher in first and fourth grades than did students who were five years old when they entered school. The differences in achievement, as measured by test scores on the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills, were found in reading, language, math, and total achievement scores. The same comparison for eighth grade students, however, found significant differences in reading achievement only.

The study used test scores of 17,000 students in grade one, 17,500 in grade four, and 19,450 in grade eight. With samples of this size, small differences in achievement become statistically significant, although they may not be significant in an educational sense. For example, in reading, language, and math, the pupils who started school at age six scored at the 49th, 50th, and 50th percentiles respectively, while those who started at age five scored at the 46th, 46th, and 47th percentiles. It is questionable whether these slight percentile differences reflect an educational problem worth worrying about—especially in those subjects where the differences are not reflected in eighth grade scores.

See B. Glen Davis, C. Scott Trimble, and Denny C. Vincent. "Does Age of Entrance Affect School Achievement?" *Elementary School Journal* 80: 133-43; No. 3, January 1980.

Do children of very young mothers achieve less in school than children of older mothers?

No, according to this study that compared the school performance of 157 eight-year-old Black children born to mothers 15 years of age or younger to the performance of 157 eight-year-old Black children born to mothers who were 20 to 24 years of age. The two groups were matched for socioeconomic status.

No significant differences between the two groups were found in academic achievement, behavior and social adjustment ratings, or school cumulative record data. The study examined these variables for the first three years of schooling.

This study illustrates that research which finds no differences can be of interest. Research on effects of schooling is genuinely hampered by the pervasive effects of student background. This study removes one such background variable from consideration.

See Betty H. Morrow. "Elementary ... School Performance of Offspring ... Young Adolescent Mothers." *American ... Educational Research Journal* 16: 423-29; No. 4, Fall 1979.

Are "memory aid systems" useful in education?

Yes, argues this review of research on visual mnemonics (using visual imagery to aid memorization). The review finds that the use of visual imagery can help students learn sentence structure, vocabulary, prose material, concepts, and foreign languages.

The author argues that memory aid systems are almost never used in schools because educators resist the idea that memorization is an important part of schooling. He points out, however, that learning basic facts is the first minimum requirement of students in schools, and improvement in memorization would help students learn basic facts more easily so they could then proceed toward higher educational goals, such as critical thinking.

See Kenneth L. Higbee. "Recent Research on Visual Mnemonics: Historical Roots and Educational Fruits." *Review of Educational Research* 49: 611-29; No. 4, Fall 1979.

How can teachers make homework a more effective learning experience?

This article classifies types of homework assignments and provides guidelines to help teachers make the assignments more effective for student learning.

The authors point out that research neither supports nor refutes the idea that homework improves achievement. If teachers give homework, however, they argue, the assignments should follow some prescribed rules.

Teachers should first determine the purpose of an assignment. *Practice* assignments should help students master basic skills that have already been presented in class. *Preparation* assignments should help students benefit from subsequent lessons (e.g., define vocabulary terms that will be used in the next lesson). *Extension* assignments should ask students to use a new skill or concept in a new situation (e.g., after having learned the causes of the French Revolution, students could compare these to the causes of the American Revolution). *Creative* assignments should ask students to integrate many skills and concepts (e.g., a book report or research project).

The authors also provide a set of criteria that all homework assignments should meet. Assignments should be

related to learning outcomes that students perceive as meaningful; should minimize demands on student and teacher time, but yield maximum benefits; should be clearly and thoroughly described; and should be within the ability range of all students in the class.

See Jackson F. Lee, Jr., and K. Wayne Pruitt. "Homework Assignments: Classroom Games or Teaching Tools?" *The Clearing House* 53: 31-35; Fall 1979.

Does classroom seating arrangement affect student behavior?

Yes, according to two well-designed studies reported in this article. In the first study, 17 second grade children sat facing each other at 4- and 5-person tables for 10 days and then in rows of 4 or 5 desks for the next 10 days. They returned to the tables for 7 more days, and to the rows for a final 7 days. During the entire 34 days, observers recorded their study behavior on a number of dimensions and developed an overall measure of their study level.

The results showed that average study levels for each time period were as follows: at tables, (10 days), 60 percent; in rows (10 days), 82 percent; at tables, (7 days), 63 percent; and in rows (7 days), 83 percent. Plainly, the students showed much better study behavior when seated in rows than when seated at tables.

The second study employed a similar design with a classroom of 32 seventh grade students. They sat at tables for 5 days, in rows for the next 10 days, and at tables again for the last 5 days.

This study, however, measured the number of "talk-outs" (audible, verbal sounds students made without the teacher's permission) the class made each day. During the first 5 days at tables, talk-outs averaged 58; during the 10 days in rows, they averaged 30; and during the last 5 days at tables, they averaged 50. Seating in rows resulted in an obvious decrease in inappropriate student behavior—in this case, talking out.

In my view, three points should be emphasized when interpreting these results. First, the study design is a strong one in psychological research, which in general provides results that can be attributed to the treatment factors examined and not to other causes. In other words, seating arrangements almost certainly account for the measured differences in behavior.

Second, the reader should recognize that the measured behavior occurred during two instructional modes—teacher-directed instruction and individual seatwork—in which interaction of students is not appropriate. Seating students in rows structurally prohibits such interaction much more effectively than seating students at tables.

Third, neither study links the behavioral results to increased academic achievement. Improved study behavior and less talking out may be factors influencing achievement, but these studies do not make the linkage empirically; it cannot be assumed.

See Saul Axelrod, R. Vance Hall, and Ann Tams. "Comparison of Two Common Classroom Seating Arrangements." *Academic Therapy* 15: 29-36; No. 1, September 1979.

How can teachers use "time-out" procedures with disruptive students?

This article defines what "time-out" procedures are and describes three approaches that teachers can use to help disruptive students in the classroom.

The basic premise of time-out is that it is a way to deal with disruptive behavior without hostile or punitive retaliation. The authors describe three approaches: the behavioral approach (establishing a period of time during which the student is deprived of the rewards of being among his or her classmates); the cooling-off approach (allowing a student to remove himself or herself voluntarily from a stressful situation and providing adult help during the period of removal); and the modified approaches, which include various modifications of the first two approaches.

The authors identify a series of critical steps that are required in using the time-out approaches: identify the serious behavior, designate a specific area for time-out, immediately place or provide for the placement of the pupil in the designated area, monitor the actual time spent in time-out, return the student to the usual class routine as soon as possible, and evaluate the effect of the time-out procedure, including maintenance of records showing frequency and duration.

See M. Katherine Grayson, John Kinaly, Jr., and Archie J. McKinnon. "Using Time-Out Procedures with Disruptive Students." *The Pointer* 24: 74-81; No. 1, Fall 1979.

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Teacher Opinion Poll

Retirement for Teachers

About three-fourths (76 percent) of public school teachers support the concept of Social Security, even though less than one-half (46 percent) feel that coverage under the U.S. system should be mandatory for all employed taxpayers. Three-fourths (75 percent) believe that homemakers should have the option of purchasing Social Security coverage. Teachers in the Northeast are more likely not only to support the concept of Social Security, but also to want coverage mandatory for all employed taxpayers and optional for homemakers.

These are some of the results of NEA Research's latest Teacher Opinion Poll. The Poll, completed in the spring of 1979, questioned more than 2,000 public school teachers.

Although most of the respondents had an opinion about the kind of retirement benefits that were best for them, about one-half said they had not studied the benefits they would get upon retirement. Of those who had studied their prospective benefits, two-thirds said they were *not* satisfied with them.

More than one-half (56 percent) of all respondents said they contributed to both a teacher retirement system and Social Security, while 40 percent said they contributed to the former only.

About one-half would prefer to contribute to both a teacher retirement system and Social Security, more than one-fourth preferred a teacher retirement system only, and about 2 percent preferred Social Security only. The rest had no opinion. Compared to their colleagues in the Middle West and West, teachers in the Northeast and Southeast were more likely to prefer a combination of a teacher retirement system and Social Security. In addition, they were more likely to say that both systems were available to them.

Almost one-half (46 percent) of all respondents feel the federal government should use general tax revenues to subsidize the cost of Social Security, although almost one-third feel it should not. About one-fourth had no opinion.

Two-fifths (41 percent) would like to have a national retirement plan for teachers; one-third said it's not necessary.

—NEA Research.

The Teacher and the Law

Title IX and School Sports

Title IX of the 1972 Education Amendments was passed to ensure equal treatment of males and females in educational institutions that receive federal funding. While the statute's most notable result thus far may be the increase in the number of women entering "male" fields such as medicine, law, and management, the greatest publicity and controversy surrounding it have come from activities outside classrooms and study halls. For when the law ordered the end of male domination, it turned out that the most sacred turf on campus was not the library or laboratory but the football field.

Colleges and male athletic groups balked at the idea of male athletes' sharing facilities and money with female athletes. They were especially concerned about the possible loss of funds for football teams. Football, a major money-eater in many athletic programs, was not just another sport, they charged, but an American institution. One defender of the status quo reportedly explained that the question was not limited to funds and facilities for men and women but for men, women, and football players.

In 1975, the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare issued regulations to implement Title IX in athletics. The regulations called for equity for men and women athletes in scholarships, equipment, facilities, coaching, and other components of sports programs.

They said that schools could sponsor sex-segregated teams where the sport was based upon "competitive skill" or the activity was a "contact sport." However, a member of a sex whose opportunities in a particular sport previously had been limited could try out for the school team if the school sponsored only one such team and the activity was "noncontact." Contact sports were defined as "boxing, wrestling, rugby, ice hockey, football, basketball, and other sports the purpose or major activity of which involves bodily contact." Institutions were given until July 1978 to comply with the regulations.

Colleges and universities claimed that the regulations failed to provide adequate guidance on how they could comply with the law. Women's organizations charged that Title IX was being ignored in the sphere of college athletics. In response to the confusion, (then) HEW Secretary Joseph Califano issued a draft Title IX Intercollegiate Athletics Policy Interpretation. It was meant to assist institutions, faculty, and students in understanding, and complying with, Title IX. If clarity was the policy's aim, however, it missed its mark.

The policy included a presumption of compliance if per-capita expenditures for male and female athletes were equal and called for substantially equal treatment in "nonfinancial" matters. The policy was riddled with vague, open-ended exemptions that were vulnerable to abuse, however. Also, it appeared from the policy's language that the July 1978 deadline for equally accommodating the athletic needs of male and female students had been indefinitely extended. The National Education Association filed comments urging the closing of the many exemptions and the substitution of more defined rules for the presumption of compliance. NEA expressed its concern that the policy lead to the enforcement, rather than the evasion, of Title IX.

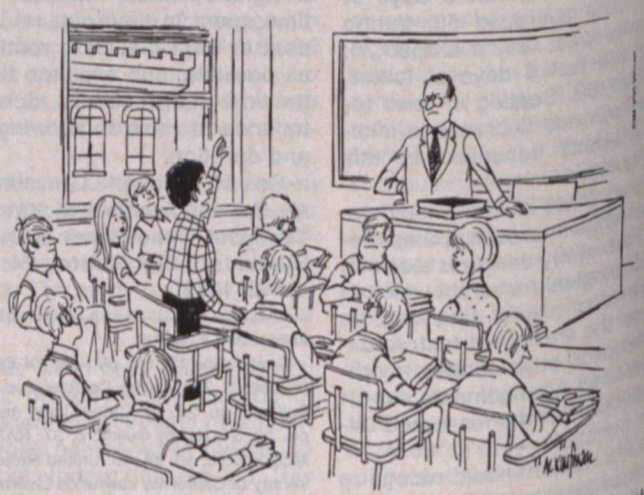
A year later, in December 1979, the new HEW Secretary, Patricia Harris, issued the final Policy Interpretation. It removes any presumption of compliance and substitutes a checklist of criteria. For example, athletic scholarships, benefits, and opportunities must be provided for men and women in proportion to their participation in sports. Items such as equipment, travel expenses, publicity, scheduling of games and practice times are to be analyzed in some detail qualitatively and, when appropriate, financially. Most of the vague loopholes have been removed in the new policy.

Of particular interest is the expanded discussion of coaching compensation. Equity will be assessed according to "rate of compensation; duration of contracts; conditions relating to contract renewal; experience; nature of coaching duties performed; working conditions and other terms and conditions of employment."

Schools are also required to "effectively accommodate the interests and abilities" of all their students so that each sex has equal opportunity to participate in athletics. Compliance will be assessed on the basis of the institution's efforts to determine the interests of its students, the selection of sports offered, and the levels of competition available. This portion of the policy still fails to address fully the need to raise the rate of female participation in athletics to the overall ratio of women to men student population.

While women's equity groups were dismayed by the long delay in issuing the policy—and the consequent holding of processing of these complaints—they were generally pleased by the direction and content of the policy.

The president of the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW), Carole H. Mushier, issued a statement that says, "The policies appear to strike a reasonable and workable balance between the legal and moral obligations of institutions to provide equal opportunities for female student athletes and the need to permit



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The Teacher and the Law

(continued)

each institution to design and implement its own nondiscriminatory athletic program."

The National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA), which represents men's athletics, was less enthusiastic in its response. NCAA assistant executive director Tom Hansen characterized the policies as "quite demanding, quite complicated, and difficult to administer because of their complexity." Hansen was particularly disturbed by the scholarship provision, which, he claimed, failed to "take account of ability."

Regardless of the strength of the language, the policy is only as potent as the enforcement effort of those assigned its implementation, originally HEW's Office for Civil Rights (OCR). This month, these responsibilities will be transferred to the Office for Civil Rights in the new Department of Education. NEA is working with the government to ensure that the policy's language is translated into action that will achieve sex equity in school sports programs.

OCR staff say a series of three meetings will be held regionally to explain the new policy to involved parties. A group of HEW Title IX experts, along with a full-time consultant assigned exclusively to the policy's implementation, will attend all of these meetings. Also, a new investigative manual, based on the policy, is planned for the use of OCR regional field staff.

While the policy does not specifically address the question of secondary schools, an OCR staff member says the policy will cover secondary schools "when applicable." HEW has told women's organizations that administrators and coaches will be sent a memorandum to that effect.

Fortunately, the new Office for Civil Rights in the Department of Education will have greater autonomy and power than its predecessor organization at HEW. The priority allocated Title IX in this office may determine the true effect of the policy.

Some argue that sex equity in school athletics threatens an American tradition, but female athletes argue that a tradition offered to only half our population is not very American.

—Barbara Stein, *NEA Teacher Rights.*

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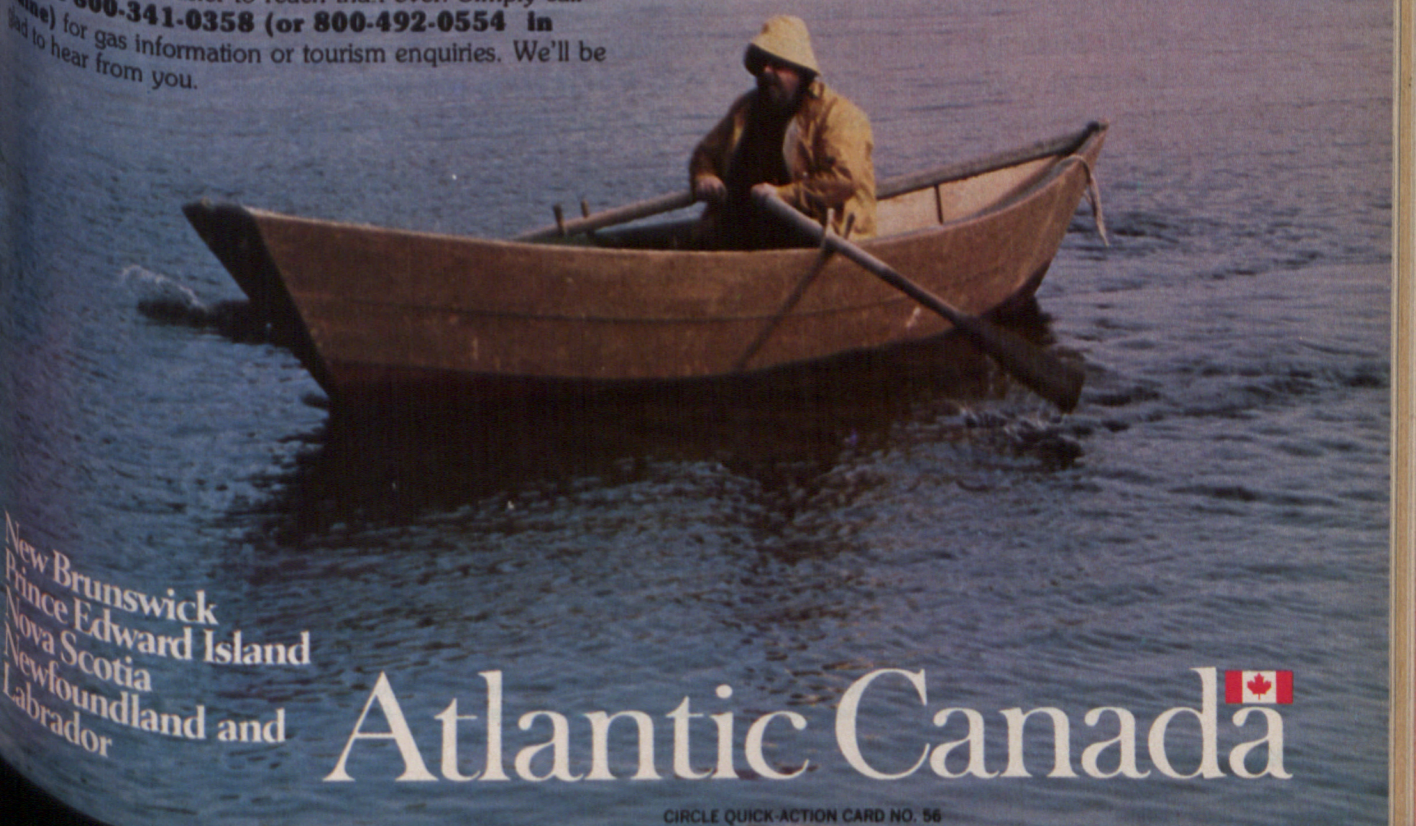

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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 56

VIOLENCE IN THE SCHOOLS

By WILLARD McGUIRE
NEA President.

We have read about the problems for years: disruptions, vandalism, threats, beatings, even murder—and damage that forces taxpayers to spend millions of dollars a year, not to improve our schools but just to repair them and to make them safe.

Newspapers and magazines relate the horror stories: a high school student in Virginia bit off a third of his teacher's ear during a scuffle; a student in Oregon turned his teacher over in a chair during class; a third grader in rural Missouri twisted a teacher's thumb and tore several ligaments; students in California, angry over their low marks, set their teacher's hair on fire, and the teacher was criticized for leaving the classroom when she went to get help.

Shocking incidents occur daily across the country. Ten years ago, the profession and public were concerned about scattered schoolhouse pranks and disturbances; today, they are alarmed about violent crimes.

School vandalism diverts some $600 million annually from education budgets—enough to buy a year's worth of textbooks or pay the salaries of 50,000 more first-year teachers without increasing taxes a nickel. The cost is a crippling strain on financially strapped education budgets.

Stress has become so widespread in teaching that increasing numbers of teachers, especially in urban areas, are leaving the profession.

Teachers cannot teach when they must police.

The problems do not start in the schools, but they wind up there, and they must be dealt with there. Past attempts to deal with the problems have

This feature on "Violence in the Schools" was prepared by NEA Communications staff members, including Marshall O. Donley, Jr., Ben Kittner, and Jane Power.

failed for several reasons. These include lack of coordination of effort by various agencies and groups, lack of willingness on the part of agencies and groups to commit themselves to the long-range programs required to produce any lasting results, lack of funds and resources to carry out programs, and apathy.

One point is clear: Police, parents, and legislators cannot solve the problems alone. Moreover, if they are going to be solved, the Association will have to lead the way.

This *Today's Education* feature includes an article by Francis A. J. Ianni and Elizabeth Reuss-Ianni of Columbia University, which gives statistics on school violence and vandalism and discusses ways changes in the school can reduce these. Other articles in the feature describe teachers' efforts to stop violence, vandalism, and discipline problems in the cities of San Antonio, Texas, and Portland, Oregon, and in the states of New Jersey and Hawaii.

Teachers deal with discipline problems, violence, and vandalism every day. The following articles give evidence that teachers are creating a public awareness and a demand for solutions that will bring about school conditions that are safer and more conducive to learning. □

NEA RESOLUTION ON PROTECTION OF SCHOOL PERSONNEL

The National Education Association and its affiliates shall work together to insist upon development and enforcement of laws that guarantee the safety of educators and other school personnel from physical attacks on their persons or property, and that provide reimbursement for loss. In no event shall time lost due to injury caused by such physical attacks be deducted from the teacher's accumulated sick leave.

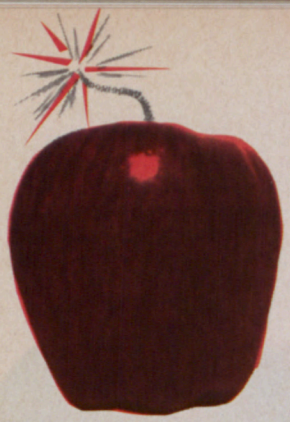
The Association will also develop guidelines for action leading to prevention of verbal abuse or harassment of educators and other school personnel by any individuals. Educators must take the responsibility to call attention to such cases so that appropriate action may be taken.

The Association believes that when school personnel are the victims of physical attack, verbal abuse, harassment, or theft, they should receive the full support of their employer in pursuing legal and other remedies.

The Association further believes that the local association must have the right to reflect the concerns of the profession at a student suspension or expulsion hearing.

The Association urges its affiliates to cooperate with juvenile court systems to secure strict enforcement of juvenile law in cases involving disturbances in the public schools.

—Passed by 1979 NEA Representative Assembly.



WHAT CAN SCHOOLS DO ABOUT VIOLENCE

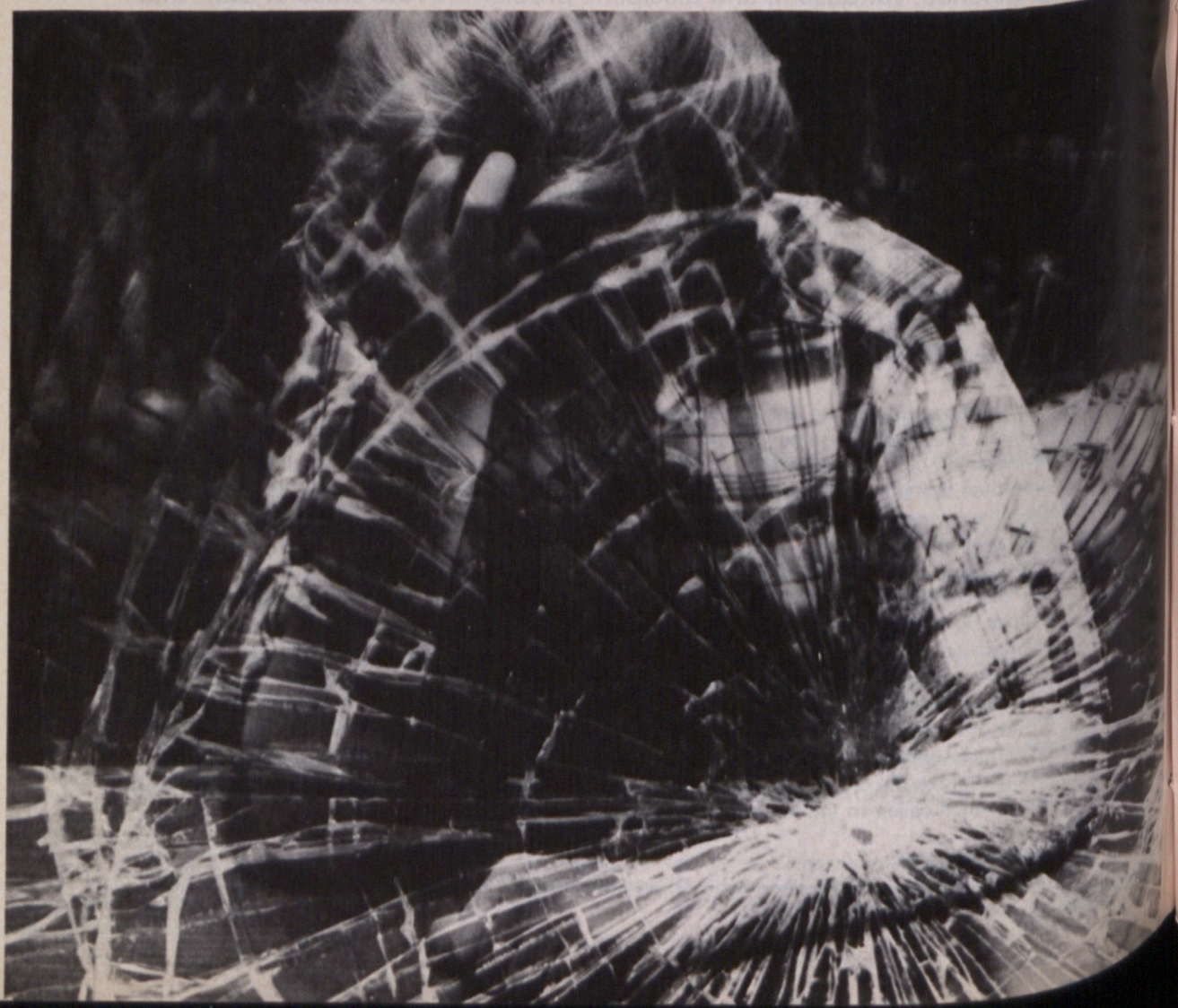
What are the nature and extent of violence and crime in American schools?

- What role do schools themselves play in producing, aggravating, or reducing school crime?
- How can changes in schools, as distinct from changes in society, remedy the problems we seem to be having with social controls?

In 1978, we worked on the Safe School Study conducted by the National Institute of Education. This and similar work of ours and of others provide the statistics and examples we use in discussing these questions.

Research indicates that during the sixties both acts of violence and property destruction in schools increased. After the school year 1971-72, both rates leveled off. Most of the studies indicate that assaults on teachers increased from 1956 to 1974 but leveled off thereafter; that robberies

By FRANCIS A. J. IANNI
Professor of Education and Director of the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute, Teachers College, Columbia University, and
ELIZABETH REUSS-IANNI
Research Director, Institute for Social Analysis, New York City.



nd assaults increased in the early seventies; and that van-
dalism increased in the mid-sixties and leveled off after
1970 or 1971. The studies do not indicate that the rates of
the offenses we call violence and vandalism are currently
growing worse.

Some characteristics of communities over which schools
have little control seem to be related to higher rates of
crime and disruption in schools. For example, the propor-
tion of schools seriously affected by violence declines with
community size, from 15 percent in large cities to 6 percent
in suburban and 4 percent in rural areas.

It seems clear, however, that schools do not simply
reflect community crime rates. In a number of schools we
studied, the incidence of school violence and vandalism had
declined while crime rates in the schools' immediate com-
munities had soared. In some of these schools, parents
reported that they felt their children were safer within the
school than outside it. Teachers and administrators in these
schools also said they felt safer in the schools than traveling
through the surrounding communities.

The role of the school in structuring the disruption
which takes place within it is also apparent in the fact that,
except for trespassing and breaking and entering, most
reported offenses in schools are committed by current stu-
dents.

Of the characteristics over which schools have some con-
trol, the age-grade structure seems to be the one that is the
most directly related to the nature and extent of crime in
schools. To a lesser extent, it seems that disproportionate
racial and ethnic balances in a school can bring victimiza-
tion of the smaller groups.

Seventh graders are the most likely to be attacked or
robbed; twelfth graders are least so; and at age 13, the risks
are apparently highest. We believe that moving out of the
more protective elementary school context into the less
self-contained structure of junior high school is the major
factor here.

Most offenses in schools involve victims and offenders of
the same race (58 percent). But the fact that 42 percent of
offenses are interracial indicates that interracial conflict is
a serious problem. The smaller the size of a minority group
in the school, the greater the likelihood that members of
other racial groups will commit offenses against members
of the minority.

Studies have found that a number of other school-specif-
ic factors are related to school crime and disorder.

Crowding is one important factor. Schools which had
major disruptions in the late sixties and early seventies often had many more students than they were designed to serve. According to many teachers and parents, later reduction of the number of students in these schools was accompanied by a decline in violence and disruption.

In our observations we found that the locations of violence and disruption were usually crowded areas—stairways, hallways, and cafeterias. Many staff told us that control of students was easier in classrooms, where students can be identified as individuals, than in the disorder of the halls and stairs during change of classes.

School size in general is another important factor. Large schools have a higher incidence of and more serious crime and disruption than smaller schools.

In small schools, students are individually identifiable. A number of administrators, teachers, counselors, and security personnel whom we interviewed said that in a small school "there is no place to hide." In some of these schools, the principal knew not only each student but each student's family as well.

In large schools, in the absence of some form of identification, it is impossible to identify outsiders. In schools on split sessions, school personnel can never be certain who is and who is not supposed to be in the building at a given time.

Not only can students be easily identified in small schools, but they are more likely to identify with the school, with other students, and with teachers and to join in the activities and programs of the school. This characteristic, which seems quite close to what was called "school spirit" in an earlier day, is difficult if not impossible to develop in large, urban secondary schools which have 4,000 or 5,000 students.

While school spirit has usually been portrayed as a student characteristic, large school size also reduces the ability of the teachers to relate to students. It thus seems to help cause the considerable apprehension teachers feel in urban schools.

Students unable to identify with a large school as a whole frequently claim control over particular portions of the school and even over "turfs" on the sidewalks outside of the school in much the same way that prisoners set up "courts" or territories in prison yards.

These territorial claims are often based on ethnicity. In these cases, they not only reduce interaction among ethnic groups but are a source of potential conflict.

According to the Safe School Study, classrooms are the safest places, considering the amount of time spent there. Students' risk of violent encounter is greatest during the time between classes, especially in senior high schools. More than half of all thefts, on the other hand, occur during class. Next to classrooms, lockers are the sites of most thefts.

Nationwide, 1 out of 6 secondary school students in the Safe School Study reported avoiding three or more places in school because he or she believed them to be hazardous. When students' uneasiness reaches the limits of tolerance, they stay away from school altogether.

Students who have actually been victims of attack or robbery in schools are more likely than other students to

say that they are afraid both on the way to school and in school. They are also more likely to say that their own grades are low or below average.

Victimized students are likely to be having behavioral problems in school and are twice as likely as others to report having been expelled from another school.

They also are more likely to report that they are punished by their parents if they get into trouble in school. If these perceptions are accurate, both home and school are less supportive and more punitive to students who are victimized than to other students.

Teachers, administrators, and students report that not only do the victims of attack and robbery share many characteristics with students who have been identified as offenders, but they are more likely than nonvictims to be offenders themselves.

Teachers and administrators we have interviewed complain that a small group of youngsters—the term most frequently used was "hard core"—produces most of the violence and disruption in schools. Many teachers and administrators estimate that this group is "about 10 to 15 percent" and that the other 85 to 90 percent of students are seldom either victims or offenders.

To some extent these reports may be the result of that sorting of youngsters by which the school seems to modify patterns of social relations by defining some youngsters as uneducable and violent. The hard core may, however, represent an actual deviant group within the school community. Members of this group do not seem to come from any specific racial, ethnic, or socioeconomic background. School staff commonly describe them as students who have difficulty academically, are frequently in trouble in the community, and come from troubled homes.

Teachers, administrators, and students, however, indicate that this group of troublesome students can find allies among other students when specific situations arise. Thus school violence and disruptive behavior can be described as interactive: A small group of students frequently causes problems and at times sets off a chain reaction among other students.

The schools are often unable to deal with this group of troublesome students. The most common treatment reported is suspension, but very few educators say that suspensions are effective either as deterrents or as treatment. Staff members often complain about the unavailability of adequate counseling or psychiatric help. More and more, school systems are transferring troublesome students to other schools. School staff often suggested, however, that these students require special training and socialization experience.

What makes school disorders most significant for education is their effect on the climate of the school. In addition to the actual costs in terms of people and dollars, crime and disorder in schools disrupt learning. Since schools are charged with much of the responsibility for socialization, school disruption can have a lasting effect on youth and can spread out into the community and into the future. Also, crime and disruption and the potential for it can have serious effects on teachers, who find that fear for personal safety is detrimental to effective teaching. A safe school is necessary for effective learning and efficient teaching to take place.

The responsibility for prevention and control of school crime has always rested more heavily on the school than on the community. Historically, this unevenness is based on the doctrine of *in loco parentis*: The parent delegates some authority over the child to the teacher. The doctrine covers the school's right to discipline the child.

In recent decades, schools have emphasized the more positive developmental aspects of discipline, and students have challenged the more negative forms in the courts. One of the legacies of the considerable media attention to school crime and disruption, however, is that today interest in reaffirming the school's right to use the more negative aspects of discipline is growing.

At the same time, new interest has arisen in the more positive kind of school discipline—that which arises from good governance. The governance procedures which shape behavior are usually expressed in school rules and regulations. They are even more frequently found in informal social control: the importance or lack of importance attributed to academic excellence, the structure of order, and the development of an identification with the mission of the school. These elements are, we believe, the important components of the governance structure of a school.

Evidence is abundant that school governance thus broadly defined is the major factor determining the level of crime and disruption in schools. Students' perception of the school as maintaining order and teachers' perception of their own ability to maintain order in class are positively related to lower losses, measured in dollars, from vandalism and theft. So are good coordination and mutual support between administration and faculty.

Also, school crime and disruption are reduced in schools where students say they can identify with the teachers and have access to them and where ethnic and racial harmony are great.

Conversely, where teachers' behavior shows a lack of respect for students and where competition among students is strong, property losses tend to increase.

We are going to describe a specific pattern of school governance with a number of very distinctive features. These features were the most frequently cited reasons for success in the schools we have studied which were safe and just as obviously absent from those which were not. More important, the same features were reported to be responsible for the improvement in *turnaround* schools—those which had reversed a pattern of violence and disorder.

The most obvious and most frequently cited factor was the leadership style of the principal. Often the turnaround point in a school that was once considered unsafe and out of control was the arrival of a new principal. Wherever principals were described as dynamically moving the schools forward, students, community residents, and school staff frequently cited their educational leadership and the new educational programs they installed.

Visibility and availability to students and staff are two other characteristics of the principals in schools which have made a dramatic turnaround from periods of violence. Conversely, in schools which remained in difficulty, the principals were most frequently cited as the major problem.

Often they were described as "unavailable and ineffective."

The principal's ability to initiate a structure of order in the school was equally important. A number of recent research findings indicate that a firm, fair, and consistent structure of order is an important determinant of success in many areas of education, from the teaching of reading to the establishment of a climate conducive to learning.

In such a governance system, discipline and sanctions, as well as rewards, are handed out in an evenhanded fashion. Students and faculty are aware of the consequences of specific acts and aware that exceptions are rarely, if ever, made. In unsuccessful schools, on the other hand, rule enforcement in the academic areas tends to be highly arbitrary and seems to serve disciplinary rather than educational ends.

Of particular importance was the principal's responsiveness to teachers' and students' opinions about school policy. In some cases this meant a receptivity to participation by students and teachers in making decisions; in others, a willingness to make known how decisions would be made and a practice of following these procedures with openness and honesty.

A number of characteristics of teachers also seem to be important in those schools where a successful governance program is part of the structure of social control. High self-esteem, job satisfaction, and general agreement with the principal's educational and procedural styles indicate the high morale common in successful schools. Teachers in such schools report that they are in those particular schools because they want to be there.

Cohesiveness among teachers and a sense of identification with students are other characteristics frequently mentioned. Generally, high faculty morale seems to be associated with a strong sense of school spirit among students.

Far from being simply the victim of external social forces, the school plays a major role in determining the incidence of school crime and disruption. Today only 8 percent of the elementary and secondary schools in the country are still being seriously affected by crime, violence, and disruption, while crime and delinquency rates in the community continue to grow. This indicates that schools have been able to resist external social trends and maintain their own social controls.

We have suggested a number of organizational variables over which schools have control—paramount among them being the governance pattern—that can make major differences in providing an orderly climate in which learning can occur.

Although many of these changes are within the control of the school itself, nevertheless, it is important for the school to maintain appropriate relationships with the community and with other parts of the educational system. Lacking such relationships, schools become isolated from the help they need to carry out their educating and socializing roles.

The results of such isolation are apparent in the case of those large urban secondary schools which show the highest incidence of crime and disruption. Principals in such schools more frequently report that they receive little support from the central administration than do other principals.

A number of other factors relating to school crime and disruption depend on resources outside the school. The critical importance of the principal's leadership style, for example, means that the training programs at universities and the selection and placement practices of school systems must be such as to locate, prepare, develop, and support suitable leaders.

In making decisions that affect the number and location of schools, communities should examine the relationship of school size to the dysfunctional effects of overcrowding and anonymity. Similarly, we should reconsider the age-grade structure of schools which presents seventh graders with the problems of adjusting to a new and much less structured school environment at the age when they seem least able to adjust to it.

Schools should turn to appropriate juvenile as well as other community agencies for help when—but only when—it is necessary. Schools have traditionally been reluctant to call in the police for all except the most serious situations, and then often too late. Every major report on school crime and disruption points to an apparent tendency of schools to underreport crimes. Most serious attacks and fights are not reported to the police. Even of those involving weapons or injury, only one-sixth are reported.

Throughout our experience in looking at school crime and disruption, we found that emphasis on people rather than devices, on preventive discipline rather than the presence of large numbers of security personnel, provided the most successful means of keeping schools safe.

Early identification of the youngsters in that small group most frequently associated with school violence and disorder also is important. Early identification should lead to adequate socialization for such students from early in their school careers, as well as to guidance programs and psychiatric care when necessary. Such measures should be characterized by a positive and preventive rather than a punitive style.

At present we are faced with a very real danger. Despite research indications to the contrary, the public continues to believe that school crime is escalating at an alarming rate. Until public opinion catches up with research, the schools may be tempted to turn increasingly to criminal justice instead of educational solutions.

Research on the social organization of schools indicates that there are structural changes and techniques of social control which do work in schools. Such changes in schools and in how they relate to their communities are within the school's own span of control and do not require major societal adjustments. They have the additional advantage that they have not been tried elsewhere and failed. □

This article was adapted from "School Crime and the Social Order of the School." *IRCD Bulletin* (Institute for Urban and Minority Education, Teachers College, Columbia University) 14; No. 1, Winter 1979.

The development of this paper was supported by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Urban Education pursuant to a contract with the National Institute of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

HOW EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS FIGHT VIOLENCE: NEW JERSEY

New Jersey teachers have a serious problem of violence and vandalism in the schools—2,600 cases were reported in just two months, May and June of 1979.

But that statistic has a second meaning: Forces in New Jersey are mobilizing to fight back, and legislative efforts by the New Jersey Education Association (NJEA) are an important part of the fight. The state reporting system that collected the figures above was set up, in April 1979, because of a new law that NJEA backed. Before that, no comprehensive reporting system existed.

The new system rests on a checklist, quick and easy to fill out. A report of an incident can travel from the person affected to the county superintendent of schools within 10 days and from there to the state commissioner of education.

Use of the checklist can reduce the number of incidents that are covered up locally; thus it can show which localities have special problems. The state commissioner is due to present an analysis of the results, with recommendations for reducing the incidence, to the legislature in June 1981.

NJEA has backed several other bills to help protect teachers from attack. One, now a state law, requires immediate suspension of any student who assaults a school employee. The school board must hold hearings on expulsion of the student within 21 days. Students who commit a second offense are suspended until all criminal charges have been settled, however long it takes.

Now in the legislature is an NJEA-backed bill to make penalties for juveniles who attack school employees the same as for those who attack police or firefighters, raising the maximum sentence from six months to three years. Another legislative proposal provides that 14-year-olds who injure school staff members be tried as adults.

"Now," says John Pietrowicz, staff contact of NJEA's Working Conditions Committee, "we have to get some alternative schools and classes for kids in trouble."

NJEA has not only pressed directly for new legislation but has strongly influenced the recommendations, presented in May 1979, of the state's Task Force on Violence, Vandalism, and Disruption in the Schools. These recommendations call not only for further state legislation, but for changes in the state's education administrative code and action by local districts. The Association's representatives on the 22-member task force were Atlantic County chemistry teacher Harry Knobloch, chair of NJEA's Working Conditions Committee, and John Pietrowicz.

"I was the only classroom teacher in the group, and it was hard to get some of the nonteaching members to recognize what it's like to teach in an atmosphere of disruption," Knobloch recalls. "But because the group represented different viewpoints, the public accepts its recommendations."

The Task Force eventually incorporated all of NJEA's existing policy recommendations on the subject into its 47 recommendations. These range from ways to give troubled youngsters special help to special training for staff and streamlining for the juvenile justice system. NJEA's Delegate Assembly found it could endorse 46 of them. (It rejected a call for a check on criminal records of prospective employees because it might lead to fingerprinting or to discrimination against former strikers.)

NJEA itself has taken several kinds of action to help its members and locals reduce violence and vandalism. Locals can give parents NJEA's leaflets and information sheets on discipline. The Association has also published lists of suggestions on what teachers and association representatives can do when assaults occur and has circulated information about on-the-job injuries.

In October 1979, NJEA sponsored a conference on cutting school violence and vandalism, held in two locations on two successive Saturdays. The idea for the program came from the Association's Youth Services Committee, and the state Department of Education and the National Council on Crime and Delinquency were cosponsors.

About 150 people holding all kinds of positions in all kinds of school systems attended sessions on early detection, planning the environment to reduce violence, curriculum approaches to violence, specific school crime problems, developing school policy, teachers' legal rights, and conflict management. This program made a full and rather breathtaking day; participants wanted to see it repeated and expanded.

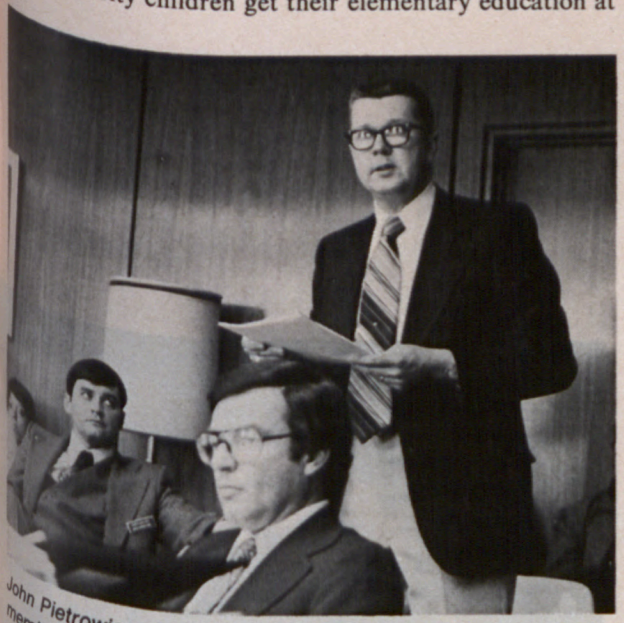
In November, sessions at the NJEA convention described issues related to violence and vandalism and some outstanding local efforts.

The convention participants had a chance to find out about the Bergenfield project, for example. Now in its eighth year, this project involves the schools, the police,

and many community groups. Together, with support from the New Jersey Health Department, they plan and carry on several programs to prevent delinquency.

Because the programs are preventive, they concentrate on the elementary level. Rather than teach specific content, classroom activities build self-respect, the ability to make wise decisions, and an understanding of group dynamics. Evan Goldman, an NEA director who has been president of the Bergenfield Education Association for 12 years, expresses one idea behind the project: "If you treat the children like people, they act like people."

Located a few miles from New York City, Bergenfield has a lot of blue-collar workers and some executives. Unemployment is running at about 6 percent. Most of the town's minority children get their elementary education at the Hoover School.



John Pietrowicz, an NJEA Field Services coordinator and member of the State Task Force on Violence, Vandalism, and Disruption in the Schools, reports to the State Board of Education on the Task Force findings. Listening to his presentation are NJEA member Harry Knobloch (left), also a member of the Task Force, and Board member David Brandt (foreground).

Ed Callison, Hoover's principal, says the self-respect program is the key to helping the pupils avoid delinquency as they grow older. A contract system for schoolwork and behavior helps. "Everyone signs the contract," says Callison, "the teacher, the kid, the parent, the principal—then maybe, for example, the reward is to help the custodian, so he signs, too."

Bergenfield superintendent Rocco Montesano has his own part in preventing delinquency. He knows most of his 4,300 students by name, often sits in the lounge or shoots baskets with them. Students are welcome to bring their problems to his office in a wing of Bergenfield High School or to call his home outside of school hours.

Every few weeks Montesano meets with 25 or 30 students from grades 7 through 12—not just the model students, but a cross section. "If you give me a problem, give me a solution," Montesano requires—and the students have brought in and solved some tough ones. Currently a pilot project is tackling smoking in the bathrooms.

The superintendent isn't abdicating responsibility: "Input isn't a decision," he says. But input can make a difference.

"It's the kids' having a say in running the schools that prevents school crime," asserts Gavin L. Blane, chief of the Bergenfield Police Department. Since 1970, the annual cost of vandalism in Bergenfield has dropped significantly, the chief says.

Where do the police fit in? "They aren't trying to see how many people they can bust," says Evan Goldman. "They're trying to prevent delinquency. After all, a lot of them are parents or former students themselves."

Police officers visit the fifth grade classes several times a year, letting the children get to know them. On the last visit, the officer, the teacher, and their husbands or wives take the class on an excursion. "They start the year asking how many people we've killed, and we end up as all human beings together," says a juvenile officer.

But the project in Bergenfield goes beyond the schools and police to the community. In one program, 60 households have volunteered to undergo training and take in youngsters in trouble for periods of up to 10 days. These young people have never been charged with an offence; their trouble is at home or with their own feelings or behavior.

The students and their parents both must agree to the visit. They get at least three sessions of counseling or other help before the visit is over. "This way they keep on going to school," says Chief Blane. "And if they're having trouble at home, school is where their base of support is."

The Bergenfield project is well-established, a model which the New Jersey Health Department uses to start other communities thinking about what they can do to prevent school crime.

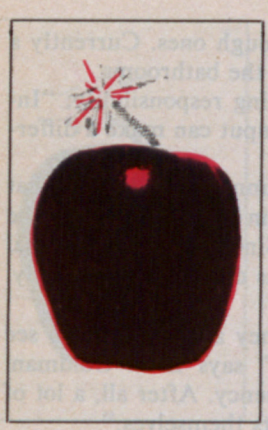
Another, very new project in the state has just started in Jersey City with NEA and local association backing.

"If we all recognize each other's needs, the kids won't leave school angry," says human relations specialist Michael Burke of Jersey City, and this can prevent trouble. Burke has set himself a challenge: to cut violence and vandalism in the city's schools by 35 percent in three years. The Hilda Maehling Fellowship Committee and the Jersey City Education Association are backing his idea.

Burke's first step in this first year of the project has been to hold workshops for parents and teachers—notably for teams of two teachers and one parent from each of the 15 of Jersey City's schools that suffers the most vandalism.

The teams exchange ideas that have worked in their schools and learn new methods of conflict resolution. They practice active listening—hearing feelings, not just words, so as to reach students' problems and needs before they cause trouble.

Last May and June a disturbing amount of school violence and vandalism was reported in New Jersey, and when the habit of reporting is well established, the monthly totals may rise. But things are plainly going to get better in the state. The teachers association at all levels, state agencies, local police, and many other citizens will see to that. □



HOW EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS FIGHT VIOLENCE: PORTLAND, OREGON

The night custodian at Portland's newest high school talked about his job while sweeping trash off the floor: "Every evening I come into this school and I don't know *what* I'm gonna find. These crazy kids ain't got no respect for this school."

In the cafeteria of the same school that night, the Portland (Oregon) Association of Teachers (PAT) was training teachers to improve their discipline skills. Their aim: to help stop the student violence and vandalism that cost each of the city's 350,000 citizens almost $1 per year.

The teachers were learning to organize written records of their students' behavior. They were studying the district's discipline policies. And they were devising standard ways to report violations of those policies.

The workshop was part of PAT's program to reduce school violence, vandalism, and learning disruption.

Portland's teachers have helped reduce vandalism expenditures in some schools by 30 percent in the past two years.

In 1977, the Association received almost $2,000 from NEA's School Violence Grants Program (administered by NEA Teacher Rights).

By offering four $125 awards for the best building-level projects in the district and $25 prizes to all entries, PAT created an incentive for action by teachers, students, administrators, and community groups.

At Whitaker-Columbia Middle School, students surveyed staff and students on their attitudes toward vandalism; made and displayed photographs of examples of vandalism on their campus; held classroom discussions; and developed assembly programs, posters, and announcements in the school's daily bulletin. Students carried out a "secret witness" program with rewards and fines.

At Ainsworth School, student candidates made speeches and presentations to an assembly that selected one of them

"The public seems surprised that teachers have to accept violence as part of their job description," says PAT President Barbara Donin. "We had zero awareness. We have had to change attitudes from the individual school building level up." The teachers at some Portland schools have seen a 30 percent reduction in vandalism losses since their campaign against school violence and vandalism began three years ago.

Right, Portland's Association teachers train together for bette classroom discipline. PAT nearly struck to get a districtwide discipline procedure when negotiating their last contract. A teacher can remove a disruptive student from a class and can grieve an administrator's action if the teacher is unhappy with the handling of an incident.

to be the school Crime Stopper. The winner served on the student council, chaired an antivandalism committee, and gave reports over the school's public address system. The school's antiviolence committee prepared an antivandalism information packet to be given to all students during the first week of school.

The results of one survey taken of students by middle school students showed the top three reasons for vandalism: just for kicks, for revenge against school and teachers, and because of personal problems, in that order.

"We've seen tires slashed, eggs tossed, and car locks filled with glue," says PAT President Barbara Donin. "But now each building in our district has felt the impact of our antivandalism program. Even schools that didn't win awards have been helped."

Every building in the district except one has had a decrease in costs caused by violence, reports Donin. The exception reported an increase of a couple of hundred dollars.

Another factor in Portland's improved school environment is a discipline clause that PAT negotiated into its most recent contract with the school board. A teacher can remove a disruptive student from the classroom and arrange a conference with the student's parents and the principal. In addition, teachers will be reimbursed for losses caused by attack or vandalism.

A teacher can grieve an administrative action if the administrator's handling of an incident is considered unsatisfactory.

Donin says, "Violence, vandalism, and classroom disruption don't happen just in big Eastern ghettos. While we Oregonians were busy marveling at our tall trees, our kids were breaking school windows."

"The bottom line," she points out, "is that we've gotten together and made a difference." □

HOW EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS FIGHT VIOLENCE: HAWAII

"I love my job," says Mike Ishihara, a teacher at Pearl City High School in Honolulu. "And I don't want to be forced into doing something else for a living because of stress or fear."

The schools of balmy Hawaii have not been a teacher's paradise. One large intermediate school has an entire wall of boarded-up broken windows—at least 20 of them. A student was beaten to death in a high school. A parent assaulted a teacher. On different occasions, students have assaulted three teachers in one school. One of the teachers suffered a maimed hand.

So for two years, Mike Ishihara and a corps of Association teachers from around the state have acted to stop violence, vandalism, and discipline problems in Hawaii's schools.

And they haven't tried to solve the problem alone. Not only the Hawaii State Teachers Association (HSTA), but the Hawaii Department of Education, the state law enforcement administration, community groups, students, politicians, and the media—all have taken part in the program entitled "Hawaii Schools That Achieve."

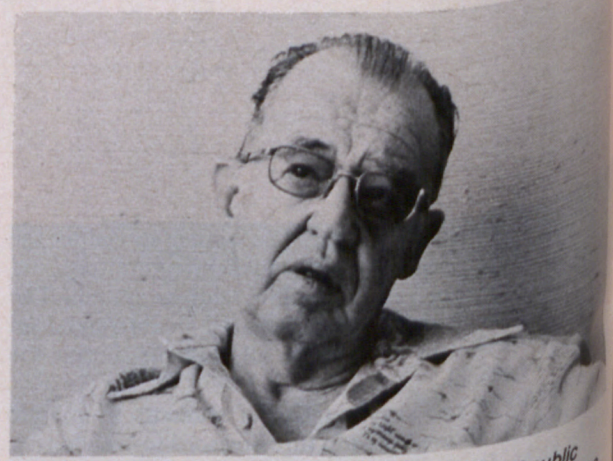
HSTA collected $15,000 to start the program in 1976. Sources included NEA's School Violence Grants Program (administered by NEA Teacher Rights), federal Law Enforcement Assistance Administration funds, U.S. Office of Education grants, and state association money.

In a program cosponsored by a number of state and national agencies, HSTA has sent representatives for training at Awareness House in Oakland, California. Located at Mills College, Awareness House is a training and resource center sponsored by the U.S. Office of Education.

Participating in the program are teachers, counselors, administrators, and parents. The trainees develop communications and process skills. They explore social and cultural issues, learn problem-solving techniques, and practice ways to develop coalitions or teams.

"We thought they were going to give us lots of program ideas," says Noreen Horita, a teacher at Pearl City High School, "but they gave us interpersonal relationship skills instead—and they work.

"We had had an unhappy, uncooperative, unwilling atmosphere at our school," she says. "Those of us who went



Charles Clark, Hawaii's state superintendent of public schools, and partner in the HSTA project to stop violence and vandalism, says, "Despite a lot of hard bargaining, we are tackling these problems together."

Teachers Mike Ishihara (left) and Noreen Horita (reading) attended a two-week training program at Mills College in 1978. Since then, they've built a team of faculty, students, and administrators who have changed the attitude at Pearl City High School from apathetic to active. "We all give and get more support," says Ishihara.

for training discovered that to change the attitude we had to become more encouraging and open-minded."

Her school began a teacher-student version of a big brother/big sister program. They used the school's physical education and health education curriculum to discourage smoking. The principal allowed students to paint and spruce up bathrooms to create a feeling of ownership. A student grievance program was instituted to help eliminate inconsistencies in the enforcement of rules. The school staff also holds picnics and bowling nights and has organized a volleyball team.

"Teachers have become more willing to get involved at work," says Horita. "We communicate better. There are fewer misunderstandings and rumors. Students have noticed that teachers have more of a school spirit."

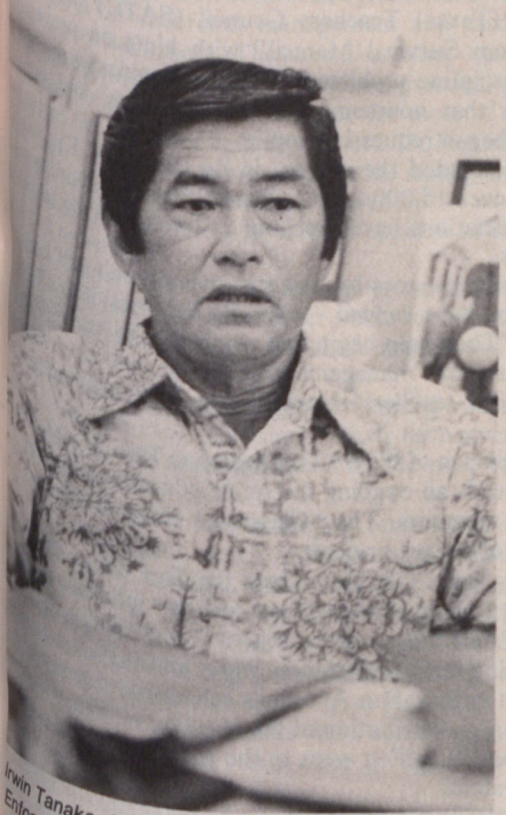
School spirit, which seemed corny a while back, is even catching on with students.

"You'll always have a few knuckle-heads who dump trash in the schoolyard," says Horita, "but things are better. I'm not afraid to go to school."

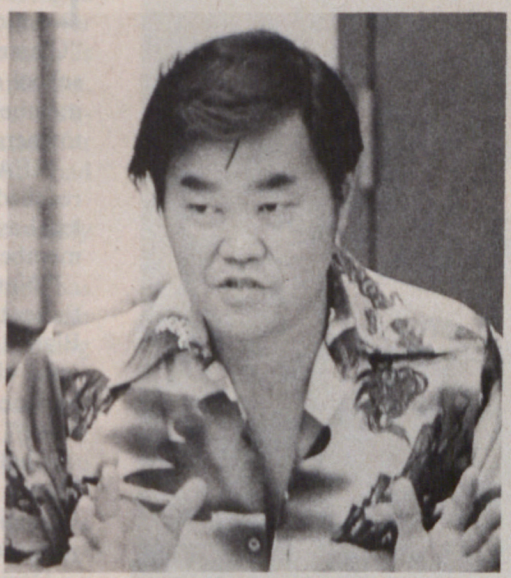
According to Ray Sodetani of HSTA, the incidence of disruptive behavior reported in several targeted schools has decreased by 64 percent.

Each year more people have been trained, enthusiasm grows, interest in the project spreads, and improvement shows.

As one participant says, "We are tackling professional problems together." □

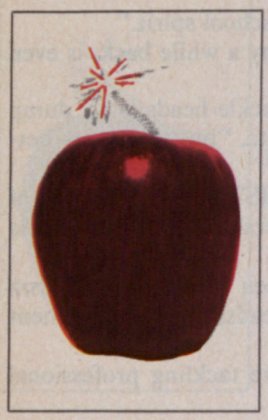


Irwin Tanaka, Director of the state's Law Enforcement Assistance Administration agency, supports the HSTA program with funding and training assistance. "In Hawaii, there are no truant officers, and cops don't automatically pick up kids off the streets. The schools believe counselors can help. But there are so few counselors, and some elementary schools don't even have counseling programs. In schools that have counselors, too often the principal makes them attendance and discipline officers. It's hard to grab the bull by the horns and do something as HSTA has."



Ray Sodetani spent a year on leave from HSTA's UniServ staff to arrange the funding, training, and implementation of the antiviolence and vandalism programs throughout the state.

Ed Fedak, a teacher, just received the legal papers that allow him to head a new, nonprofit foundation with HSTA as its chief sponsor. The teacher-run foundation will secure grants to carry on the antiviolence and antivandalism programs the HSTA initiated for the state's school community.



HOW EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS FIGHT VIOLENCE: SAN ANTONIO, TEXAS

Delores Blanar, president of the San Antonio Teachers Council, says the association's discipline-awareness program is her pet project. "Not a week goes by that someone doesn't call and say those tips have helped."

Last summer, the Discipline Task Force of the San Antonio (Texas) Teachers Council (SATC) prepared a "Classroom Survival Manual" with hints on preventing school discipline problems. It was so popular with SATC members that nonmembers, administrators, and out-of-towners began requesting copies.

NEA included the manual in its Discipline Kit, which reached over 15,000 local leaders across the country, and local associations have reprinted it for thousands of other members.

"Not a week goes by that someone doesn't call and say those tips have helped," says SATC President Delores Blaner. "They help beginning teachers who haven't developed classroom management skills yet, and they remind experienced teachers that these are the techniques that work."

Chairperson of the SATC Discipline Task Force Charles Hanus heads an ongoing discipline education program for Council members. The "Classroom Survival Manual" is just one of his pet projects.

During fall 1978, Hanus and the Task Force devised a checklist to help parents recognize their influence on their children's attitudes toward school. Teachers distributed it in shopping malls and grocery stores and at PTA meetings. The next spring, San Antonio's school board paid for the printing and distribution of the checklist—"What Kind of Parent Are You?" It went to the parents of every student in the system.

In fall 1979, SATC received a $3,600 grant from NEA's School Violence Grants Program—and the Discipline Task Force further expanded its program.

SATC sent a new brochure entitled "Teach All the Children" to parents before schools held open houses. It provided them a checklist to use in evaluating the school's program.

SATC also initiated a parent volunteer aide program for the school district.

The Discipline Task Force sent teachers a newsletter, "Discipline Update." One issue described discipline methods; another, news of the state legislature's Disruptive Students Bill. A third included a checklist —a "discipline barometer" that helps a teacher sense potential problem days (similar to a biorhythm chart).

SATC is using much of its NEA grant money to bring in 10 experts on classroom management and discipline for after-school workshops. They are discussing topics such as time management, assertive discipline, practical parenting, and teacher rights. The attendance for most of the workshops so far has been between 50 and 75. Registration for the first workshop—one on classroom management—had to be limited after 325 teachers signed up.

A regular discipline tips column appears in the weekly SATC newsletter.

Says Blanar, "This is the best thing our association has ever done. The classroom teacher wants something that can help him or her directly. Teachers are always thanking us."

SATC's program has not gone unnoticed by the community. Local radio and television stations have given air time for public service announcements on the need to improve classroom environments.

Every Thursday morning, the *San Antonio Express* runs "It's the Kids That Count" on the front page. SATC sponsors the guest column, which builds positive attitudes toward learning. "Hopefully families will try the family outings, regular library visits, and word games at home that the columns describe, and some of the resulting enthusiasm will spill over to the classroom," says Hanus.

"Both parents and teachers want some help with their children," says Blanar, "and we're giving them practical ideas and suggestions."

"One indication of our success with teachers," she continues, "is a steady increase in SATC membership over the last couple of years." □

Charles Hanus writes discipline tips for SATC's weekly newsletter, and he chairs the association's Discipline Task Force. He says there are five things a teacher should do to be an effective disciplinarian: 1. Be firm. 2. Be fair. 3. Be friendly. 4. Be consistent. 5. Be prepared. "They're almost clichés," he says, "but they work."

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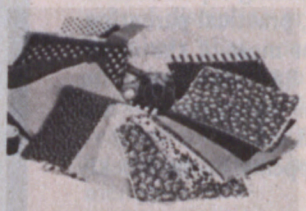

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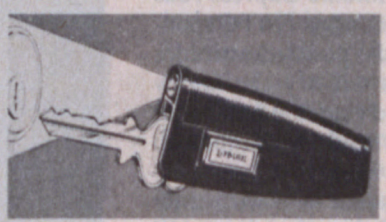

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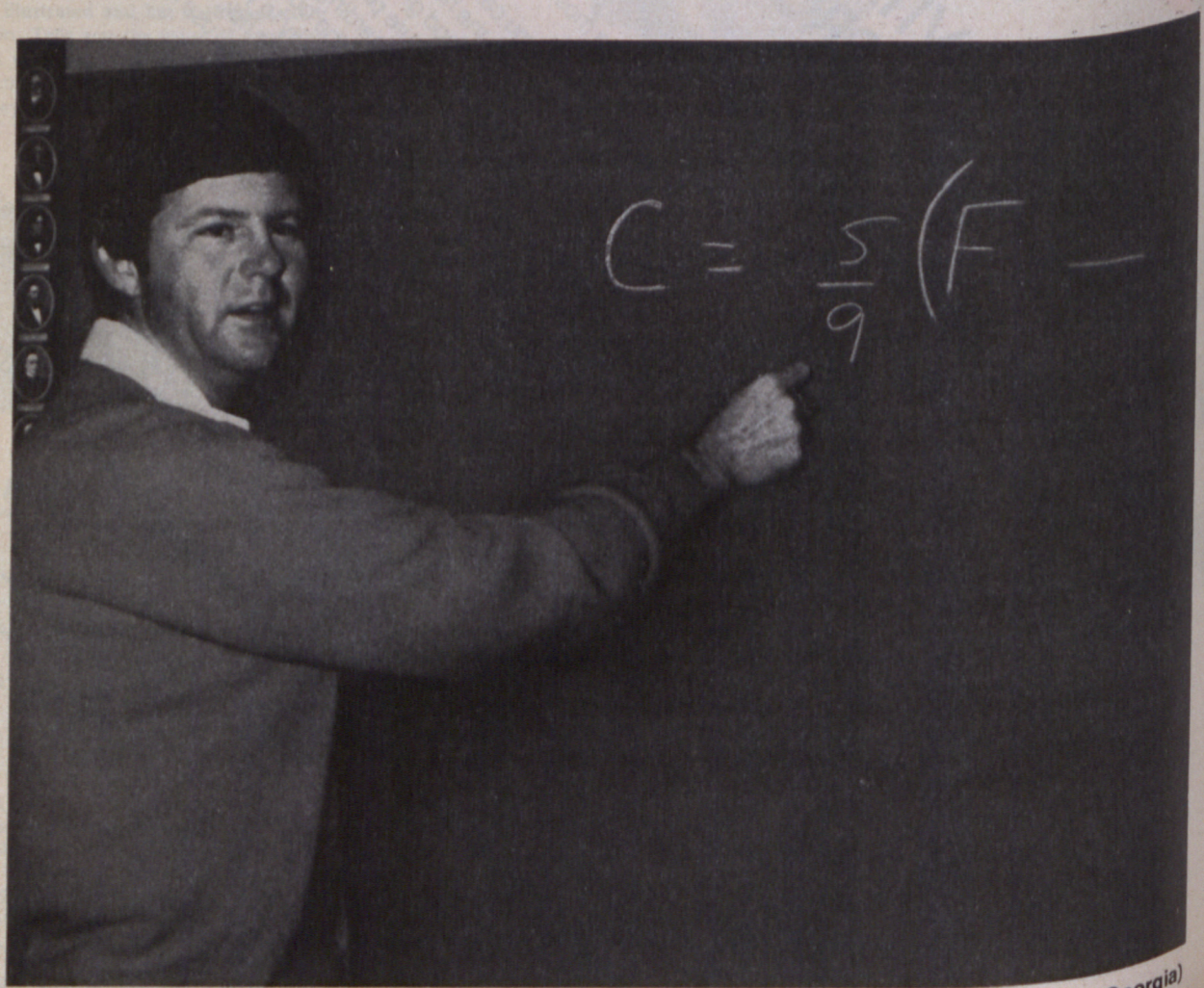

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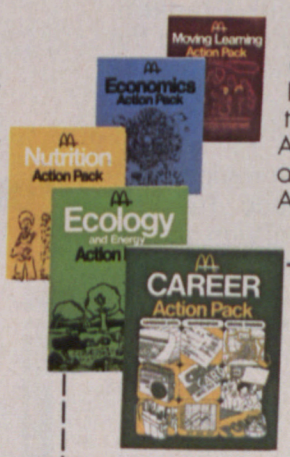

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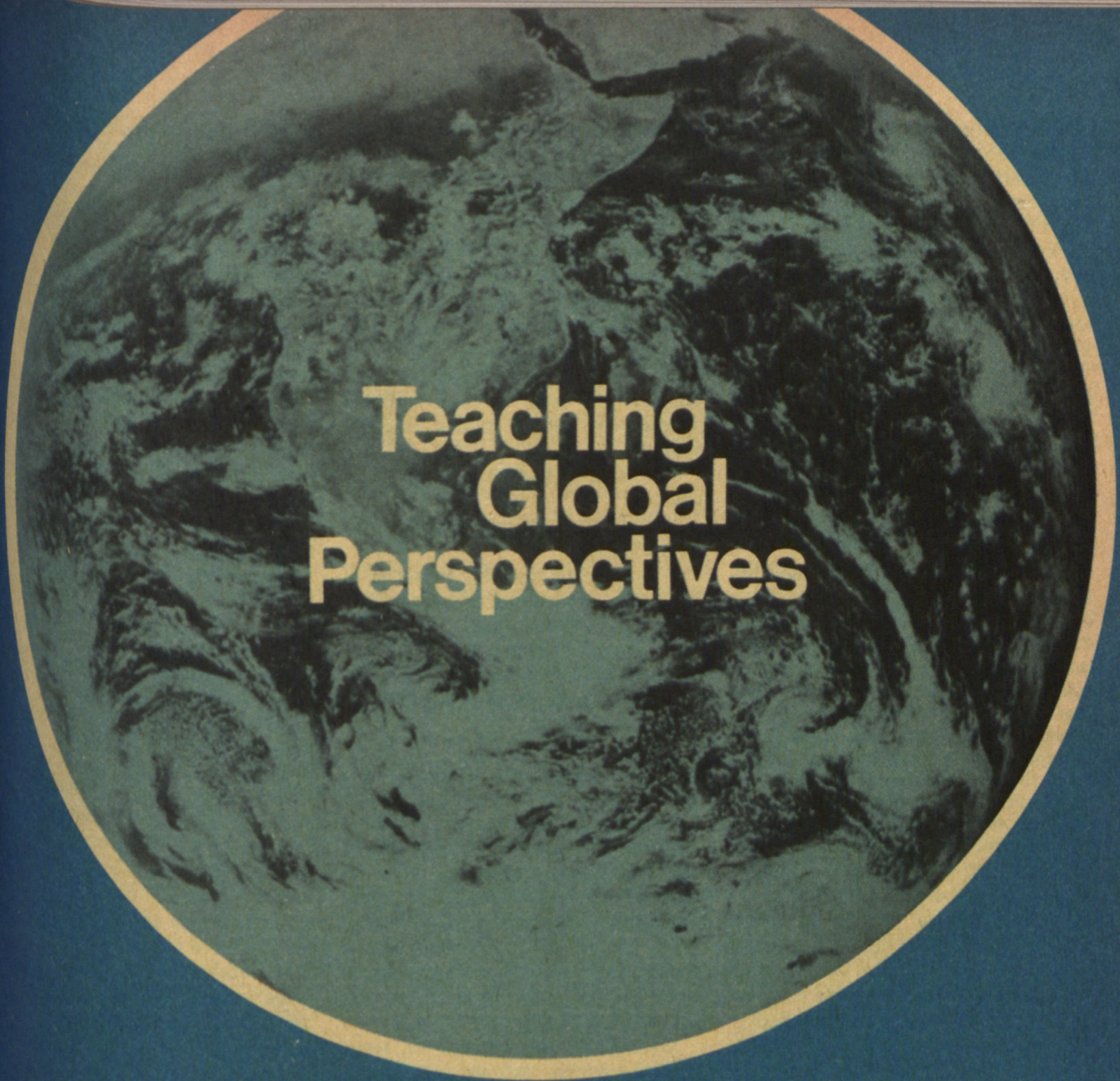

Teaching Global Perspectives

A growing awareness of global interrelatedness in this country is producing widespread consideration of a "new" approach in education: global perspectives or global education. This approach encompasses a variety of responses to the shrinking of time and space and the increase in human interaction across national and continental boundaries. It challenges the traditional view of the world as made up of peoples who live in separate nations that have contact in war and through trade and tourism but that

By JAMES M. BECKER
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otherwise have little in common.

The public—and we educators in particular—are beginning to view the world as a system or as a number of interrelated systems woven into a single unit. In many classrooms across the country, educators are increasingly emphasizing the integrated rather than the fragmented nature of life on planet Earth.

This approach suggests that an event that takes place anywhere in the world may be felt virtually everywhere in the world. In *The Way the World Works: How Economies Fail and Succeed*, Jude Wanniski uses an economic transaction to illustrate this point:

> . . . someone buys a bottle of Coca-Cola in a shop in New Delhi. The transaction not only adds to the revenue of the shopkeeper, but to the revenues of Coca-Cola in its Atlanta headquarters. There is also an infinitesimal impact on the world sugar market, as well as the markets for all other ingredients of Coca-Cola. Coca-Cola's shareholders and Jamaican sugar farmers trade their receipts from the sale of that one bottle in further transactions that ripple again and again through the world.

The landing of Apollo 11 on the moon in 1969 may have first planted in the public mind vague notions of the integrated nature of life on planet Earth. The 1973 oil embargo imposed on the United States by the Arab oil-producing nations and, more recently, the impact of events in Iran and in Afghanistan—and the U.S. reaction to them—on the price of oil and grain demonstrate our dependence on foreign products and markets and have helped translate these vague notions into realities.

Our growing dependence on the rest of the world and the increasing impact of transnational interactions on life on Main Street, USA, have made more acute our need for sophisticated knowledge about political, economic, and social phenomena. Most people accept the notion that the generation of such knowledge requires highly trained specialists familiar with global issues and processes as well as with the languages and cultures of various peoples.

The role of the expert should not, however, blind us to the necessity that all citizens in our democracy understand transnational interactions; global processes; and the unity and diversity of cultures, nations, and peoples. It is also important that citizens acquire the skills they need to influence international interactions and processes.

Traditionally, schools—especially their social studies curriculums—have been responsible for preparing young people for intelligent, responsible, and effective participation in society, in transnational as well as in community concerns. In order to fulfill this responsibility, social studies teachers should—

- Globalize the content of their courses
- Give more attention to global economic issues
- Emphasize that the 50 states of our nation are playing an increasingly large role in world affairs
- Introduce the new actors and new issues in world politics
- Address the issues of world peace and human rights.

In *Schooling and Citizenship in a Global Age: An Exploration of the Meaning and Significance of Global Education,* Lee Anderson says one of the challenges confronting those responsible for citizen education is globalizing the content of education. This is, of course, not a new challenge to those familiar with trends in international studies or in world affairs over the past few decades.

Globalizing the content of social studies requires that we increasingly focus attention upon the world in all its diversity rather than on the world as a collection of isolated units—nations, geographic regions, separate cultures. (A 1979 NEA publication that presents this point of view is *Global Studies for American Schools: Rationale and Practical Suggestions,* Stock No. Z-1824-9-OF. It is available for $4.50 from the NEA Distribution Center, the Academic Bldg., Saw Mill Rd., West Haven, CT 06516.)

In "Expanding the Limits of History," in the May 29, 1976, issue of *Saturday Review*, Edwin Reischauer, arguing for a "new" history in our schools and colleges, puts the case succinctly: "History, to be relevant today . . . must encompass as much as possible of the total experience of mankind." He also states that a case can be made "that the historical experiences of other civilizations have in them as much relevance to us today as our own."

This view is not radical. In effect, it means we need the same kind of intellectual orientation toward teaching about the world that we have toward teaching about the United States. We do not teach about the United States as a motley collection of separate states. Rather, we help students to see the United States as a single, complex society in which they are participants. We need to develop the same approach to teaching about the world—one that helps students to see the world as a single, complex society of which they are inescapably a part.

Such an approach should not detract from students' special identification with, or love of, their country any more than identity with, and love of, the nation interferes with their feelings about, or commitment to, their home town or state. All people are capable of multiple loyalties and roles, as is evidenced by their simultaneous commitments to family, church, friends, clubs, and other groups and organizations.

Teachers and students can continue to take pride in the fact that our nation's superior, but no longer controlling, power abroad can be an important force for safety and prosperity in the world. Both can understand that some world problems—increased competition for nonrenewable resources, nuclear proliferation, environmental threats, and severe economic dislocations—are too vast and complex to be dealt with by any single nation and that the most serious threats to our nation's well-being cannot be overcome by military power. To be effective, our nation must use its power and prestige in cooperation with other nations.

In *The Public and American Foreign Policy, 1918-1978,* Ralph B. Levering says that the most hopeful development during the last 60 years is the increased sophistication of Americans regarding foreign affairs. He laments the fact that the public is still largely ignorant about international economic issues, however.

Schools have done little to educate the public about important international economic trends and issues. The multinational corporation, for example, is one of the most important actors

on the world stage today. Yet this form of enterprise has received little, if any, attention in widely used school textbooks until very recently.

According to one widely used definition, any corporation with a significant presence—for example, manufacturing plants, mines, farms, research facilities, sales offices—in more than one country can be categorized as a multinational one. (A corporation that merely sells its products in other countries is not a multinational corporation.)

Depending on the definition one uses, somewhere between 500 and 4,000 multinationals exist in the world today. Their significance can be seen by comparing their gross sales with the gross national products of individual nations. Royal Dutch Shell, General Motors, and the Ford Motor Company, for example, typically have sales that exceed the gross national products of more than 100 independent nations. In 1976, Royal Dutch Shell reported global sales in excess of $33 billion. In 1979, Ford reported second quarter earnings of almost $12 billion; during that period, its profits in North America declined while its profits outside North America jumped an amazing 57 percent.

Multinational firms are organizations whose executives think and act on a global rather than on a national scale. The interests and objectives of these firms rarely coincide with those of a single nation-state.

The giant multinationals in areas such as oil, grain, aluminum, automobiles, and computer technology might be viewed as separate "countries" with organizational patterns and languages of their own and with interests that do not necessarily jibe with those of their host countries.

Some materials that may prove helpful in teaching students more about these important actors on the world stage include *The World Economy and Multinational Corporations* (available for $2 from Box 14302, Dayton, OH 45414) and *Mid-America Trades with the World* (available for $2 from Mid-America Program, 513 N. Park, Bloomington, IN 47401).

Multinational operations and the products they produce affect the life and prosperity of the hometowns everywhere in our country. Trade associations and government agencies in most states make aggressive efforts to bring foreign investment into their state, further strengthening the role of many multinationals. For example, 48 states wanted the $300-million West German Volkswagen plant that eventually settled in New Stanton, Pennsylvania.

The November 27, 1978, issue of *Newsweek* reported that 28 states have agencies that are designed to attract foreign industry and that at least a dozen of these states maintain full-time offices in Brussels, Belgium. Trade missions sponsored by state departments of commerce or similar state agencies to Japan, Europe, the Middle East, and elsewhere are common today.

Evidence of the success of these and other efforts to recruit foreign investment is apparent in two reports. One, by The Conference Board, a nonprofit, research-based, educational organization, notes that foreigners made a total of 639 investments in U.S. manufacturing firms during 1977 and 1978. A second, a 1979 report by the International Trade Division of the Indiana Department of Commerce, notes that since 1974, the number of Hoosier companies with at least 10 percent foreign ownership jumped from 20 to 80.

Since 1970, foreign banks have acquired more than 59 U.S. banks, with assets totaling more than $20 billion. The sale of farmland to foreign investors is creating concern in some states. According to the issue of *Newsweek* cited earlier, 26 states restrict in some way the purchase of farmland by foreign investors.

Further evidence of the increasing involvement of states in the world economy is that many states hire representatives in other countries to help promote the sale abroad of the products of their states.

The study of local and state governments and economies today should include information about the role of state government in encouraging sales to foreigners as well as its role in promoting investment by foreigners. The local impact of increased trade and foreign investment is, of course, only one bit of evidence of the increasing globalization of our lives.

Materials that suggest a variety of ways to identify local and state economic links to the world are likely to be available from state departments of commerce and of education and from local newspapers, state chambers of commerce, and trade associations.

Increasing worldwide interrelatedness is a fact of life.

Just as the changing nature of the world economy has implications for school curriculums, the changing nature of world politics has educational implications. In my opinion, viewing nations as coherent units with well-understood national interests that their governments act upon through a clear-cut foreign policy is no longer accurate (if it ever was).

For one thing, the international issues are different today than they were before. Henry Kissinger speaks to this point:

> A new unprecedented kind of issue has emerged. The problems of energy, resources, environment, population, the uses of space and the seas, now rank with questions of military security, ideology, and territorial rivalry which have traditionally made up the diplomatic agenda.

In addition, increasing interdependence has increased the number of international issues that directly affect individuals and groups within a society. Furthermore, these issues affect different people and different groups in different ways.

On a given issue, the interests of steelworkers in the United States may be different from, and may even conflict with, the interests of the managers of a building industry. The interests of Midwest soybean growers may be very

different from the interests of urban consumers. Such conflicts are not new, of course, but the greater number of important international economic links means that there will be proportionately more conflicts of this type than in the past. On any number of issues, many conflicting interests inevitably exist.

Besides the growth of interest groups with conflicting views on U.S. foreign policy, the number and variety of U.S. governmental agencies involved in international affairs has increased markedly since World War II. Agriculture, Commerce, Treasury, and Interior are among the government agencies with a substantial number of employees involved in international relations. The President and the Department of State have long since ceased to monopolize the making and execution of foreign policy.

Different agencies may have different images of the "national" interest of the United States. An agency may on occasion pursue policies that are either unknown to other agencies or at variance with their policies. Thus a number of separate foreign policies may be pursued at any one time within the federal government. Opportunities for pursuing separate interests are available because many bureaucrats deal directly with their counterparts in other countries. They do so at meetings, on the telephone, and by correspondence. If one adds to this activity the tremendous increase in transnational contacts of some nongovernmental organizations and some private individuals, it is apparent that the traditional version of who makes foreign policy can be very misleading.

The curriculum that characterizes the international system as made up solely of nation-states that interact with one another only through their national governments no longer fits the realities of our global age. Seen in a global perspective, the international system is complex, involving a multiplicity of actors. In such a perspective, cities, states, religious groups, business firms, and voluntary agencies involved in foreign transactions all are actors in the international system. Each has a "foreign policy" of its own.

On the other hand, although many agencies, organizations, and individuals are involved in transnational affairs, government officials and the media still have a strong influence on the public's opinion of global affairs. An example might be the case of human rights as a foreign policy issue.

Evidence of global interrelatedness is commonplace all over the world.

At the time of the drafting and publicizing of the UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights in the late 1940's and early 1950's, there was a brief surge of interest in human rights as an element of U.S. foreign policy. Then such interest on the part of political leaders—and educators—declined.

In his 1977 inaugural address, however, President Jimmy Carter placed human rights center stage. One result of this action has been an increase in study of human rights in schools and on campuses across the country, which demonstrates the power of the President, the Department of State, and the media to arouse interest in world issues.

Individuals and governments all over the world say they aspire to world peace and respect for human rights. Education for peace and human rights presents a great challenge to those who address the issues rather than merely contribute to the already voluminous supply of hypocritical verbiage.

One such challenge stems from the fact that protecting international human rights involves a more than national perspective. The UN Charter makes plain that human rights is not a matter within the exclusive domestic jurisdiction of particular states. Article 55 states that the United Nations shall "promote universal respect for, and observance of, human rights and fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion." The next article states that "all members pledge themselves to take joint and separate action in cooperation with the Organization for the achievement of the purposes set forth in Article 55."

School classes usually discuss human rights in the perspective of the nation. In the United States, for example, the study of our Bill of Rights and of the progress of U.S. citizens in achieving human rights is seldom placed in a global perspective. As a result, students may well carry away the impression that only U.S. citizens have made progress in achieving, and are concerned about, human rights.

Recent books such as Richard P. Claude's *Comparative Human Rights*, with its emphasis on cross-cultural perspectives, may signal progress in placing the study of human rights in a global perspective. The time has come to treat human rights as part of the study of global society and individual and group relations in that society.

The UNESCO Recommendation Concerning Education for International Understanding, Cooperation and Peace, and Education Relating to Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms was adopted by the General Conference in November 1974. It provides a set of goals in the field of international education in general, as well as the field of human rights in particular. Some of them are as follows:

- An international dimension and global perspective in education at all levels in all its forms
- Understanding and respect for all peoples, their cultures, civilizations, values, and ways of life, including domestic ethnic cultures and cultures of other nations
- Awareness of the increase in global interdependence
- Abilities to communicate with others
- Awareness not only of the rights of individuals, social groups, and nations, but also of their duties toward one another
- Understanding of the necessity for international solidarity and cooperation
- Readiness of the individual to participate in solving the problems of his or her community and country and of the world at large.

The report of a UNESCO-sponsored International Meeting of Experts on the Role of Social Studies in Education for Peace and Respect for Human Rights, held in Lansing, Michigan, in 1976, reaffirms these goals. These objectives might well provide a common focus to the great variety of approaches to global education found in schools around the world.

A number of materials suitable for use in elementary and secondary schools for teaching about human rights are available. (See especially *International Human Rights and International Education* by Buergenthal and Torney, U.S. National Commission for UNESCO, 1976.)

Increasing worldwide interrelatedness is a fact of life. Widespread recognition of this fact is stimulating numerous efforts to sensitize large segments of the population to the need for global perspectives.

Many people still resist careful consideration of patterns of interdependence and their meaning, however. People have generally preferred the immediate, the familiar, and the dramatic to the remote, the abstract, and the gradual. But the increase in the number and variety of transnational actions, interactions, and issues and their local as well as national and worldwide impact has been tremendous. Today, making global affairs concrete, familiar, and dramatic should not be difficult. Social studies educators have special responsibilities and opportunities in this most important task—preparing students for responsible and effective participation in a global age. □

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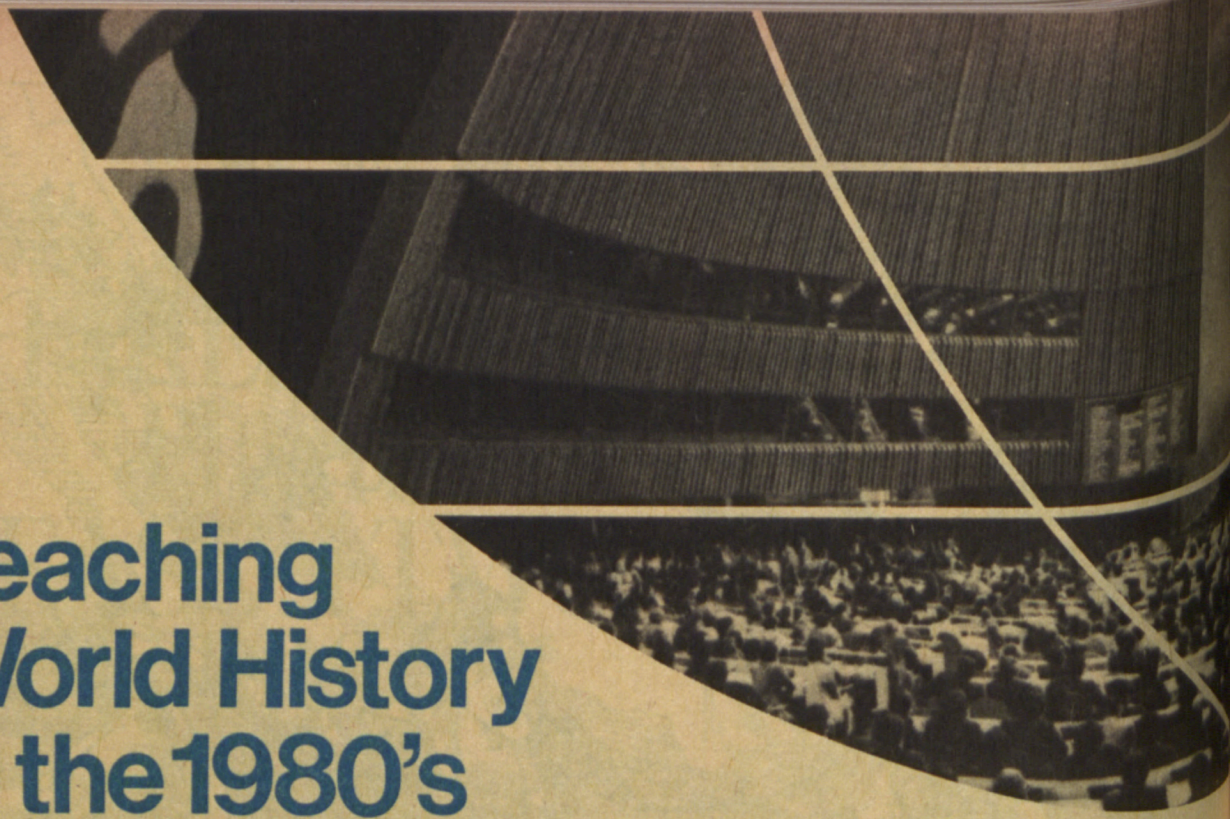

Teaching World History in the 1980's

The world history course continues to be a "problem child" of the social studies curriculum. Teachers have tried new content and new strategies in this course, but fresh approaches have not caught on. Widely unpopular with students, considered difficult to teach by teachers and supervisors, world history is required in fewer and fewer school systems and by fewer and fewer states. Moreover, the number of students who take the course continues to decline.

Yet the rehabilitation of the world history course may be just around the corner. A growing percentage of Americans are realizing, albeit reluctantly, that our future is closely tied to events in other parts of the world. As a result, some politicians, business leaders, and educators are calling for courses that increase students' familiarity with other cultures and peoples.

Ironically, a renaissance in world history courses would mark a return to earlier patterns. In the eighteenth and part of the nineteenth centuries, history was seen—and taught—as the working out of God's design in the world. By the early twentieth century, the focus was rapidly becoming secular, and national histories received increasing emphasis. By this time, however, world history was required in the secondary school curriculum. To be sure, the core of the course was ancient history and the development of classical civilization in the Mediterranean region, but the approach was integrated and holistic.

Since World War II, non-Western history has been added to the course, although usually it is tacked on incoherently to a discussion of the development of Western civilization. As a result, the content of the world history course is unmanageable, and teachers often give skimpy treatment to the modern era in the rush to end the school year. Teachers of many of these courses emphasize names, dates, and specific events that they may not tie together with any general explanations. Students all too often forget much of this unrelated factual detail and retain very little basic learning from the course.

Textbooks for these courses are often academically sound and lavishly illustrated, but many are too long and quite uninteresting. The texts generally present the material in abstract form.

Not surprisingly, then, interest in, and support for, the world history course continues to decline. World history courses have largely disappeared from four-year colleges and universities (though some two-year colleges still offer them). This change leaves a major gap in the preparation of social studies teachers, who may eventually be called upon to offer the world history course in secondary school.

The U.S. involvement in Vietnam should have changed this dismal situation, but it didn't. The tragic failure of Americans—servicemen and women, politicians, and citizens alike—to understand Asia, Asians, and the long-term forces at work in Indochina did not lead to criticism of our educational system. Instead, world history continued to lose ground.

Nor was world history much affected by the "new social studies" of the 1960's. Professor Edwin Fenton of Carnegie-Mellon University led the efforts to develop a new "inquiry" approach to history. John M. Good applied this theory in *The Shaping of Western Society: An Inquiry Approach* (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1968), as did Richard B. Ford in *Tradition and Change in Four Societies: An Inquiry Approach* (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1968).

The new books were adopted in many schools during the late 1960's and early 1970's. Some teachers and students found, however, that the reading levels of the books were too high

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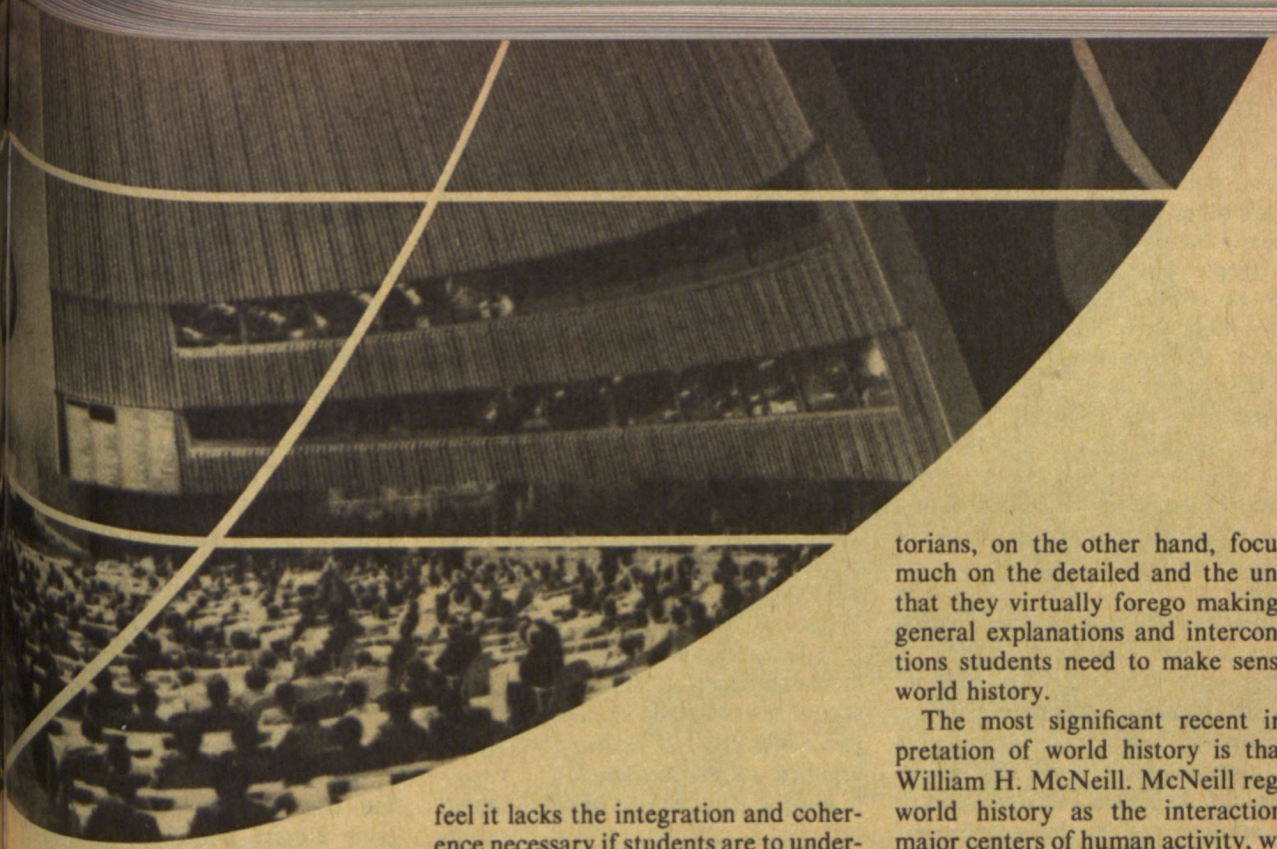

and that the inquiry method, used over and over, was so repetitious that they preferred other texts and approaches.

In the 1970's, under the aegis of the Social Studies Development Center at Indiana University, Kathleen Hedberg and I worked out an approach to world history that emphasized major turning points and concepts. We also developed a set of instructional materials that provided for a wide range of learning activities and strategies requiring active student participation. Published as *Peoples and Civilizations: A World History* (Ginn & Co., 1977), the program was too selective in content and too radical in methodology to be widely adopted.

The most important new influence on the world history course since World War II was not directly connected to changes in social studies thinking and practice. Rather, it stemmed from the particular approach to world history of Leften Stavrianos of Northwestern University. Professor Stavrianos emphasized major areas and civilizations and treated modern history from the present backward. His book, now called *A Global History* (Allyn and Bacon, 1979), first came out in the early 1960's. It is interesting and lively and has been widely used in American secondary schools. Nevertheless, some teachers and students feel it lacks the integration and coherence necessary if students are to understand the subject.

Today, a wide range of standard textbooks are on the market. Those that reputedly sell the best are thorough but traditional presentations originally written many years ago.

More than a third of the secondary and postsecondary students in the world do not have to worry about what sort of course or materials they will encounter in studying world history, nor about the philosophy of history that underlies these. In all countries guided by a Marxist-Leninist ideology, the comprehensive philosophy of Karl Marx determines the content and approach of history courses. Students learn that historical development has five stages and that the outcome of this dialectical process is the inevitable triumph of the world's toilers and the institution of a worldwide socialist system. But to many observers outside the socialist countries (and probably to more than a few inside), this Marxist framework seems too rigid and oversimplified.

At the same time, most other general explanations of world history appear equally unsatisfactory. Treating history as a cyclical pattern (as Oswald Spengler did) or as the story of the triumph of progress or liberty is inadequate to explain many complexities, and to regard history as the working out of a divine plan requires a particular belief. Most modern university historians, on the other hand, focus so much on the detailed and the unique that they virtually forego making the general explanations and interconnections students need to make sense of world history.

The most significant recent interpretation of world history is that of William H. McNeill. McNeill regards world history as the interaction of major centers of human activity, which in the modern period takes the form of the dominating intercourse of the West with almost every other part of the globe. McNeill's book, *The Rise of the West: A History of the Human Community* (University of Chicago Press, 1963), provides what is in my opinion the best single treatment of world history, and many who teach the subject rely on it.

Cyril E. Black has adopted a slightly different approach in *Dynamics of Modernization: A Study of Comparative History* (New York: Harper & Row, 1966). Black sees the chief theme of modern history as the reaction of all societies and cultures to the new knowledge and technology generated in the West in the fifteenth to seventeenth centuries. The clash between tradition and modernity can be studied in every part of the world, and Black has worked out a number of categories of analysis and measurement for the modernization process.

Americans face a wide range of challenges in the remaining years of this century, but four appear to be the crucial ones that will dominate our lives until at least 2000. First, it is clear that we live in an interdependent world, and major events anywhere in the world sooner or later have a bearing on what goes on in the rest of the world. In recent years, the most dramatic example of this has been the energy crisis, but arms control, hun-

ger, and pollution, to mention only a few, are other global issues.

Second, we will probably have 6 billion people on earth by the year 2000—an increase of 2 billion people. Almost 40 percent of these people will be under 20 years of age, and 1.6 billion of them will be women in their child-bearing years. How all these people will be educated and find jobs, where they will live, and how they will be fed are questions that our young people must study now, for they will certainly confront them later in their lives.

Third, the effect of modernization on economically developed and developing countries is a serious question. In North America, Western Europe, and Japan, postindustrial societies must decide which basic values will govern the structure and operation of their affluent and machine-dependent lives.

In most of the rest of the world, societies will react to the impact of Western science, technology, and organization. They will be forced to select what is appropriate for them and at the same time will struggle to retain aspects of their cultures that they consider important.

In this process, the goal will most often be not only a level of economic, social, and political development sufficient to permit provision of decent housing, clothing, and food for all but also an equitable distribution of opportunity and resources in the society. Yet there will always remain intangible factors of education, self-development, group identity, and creativity to be considered.

Finally, the cataclysmic changes of the past century have thoroughly uprooted much of the world's population from traditional and, in some cases, beloved symbols of identity—church, village, community, imperial ruler. In a world society where one must interact with so many varied hierarchies—at work, at play, and at home—people yearn for a new sense of belonging to replace the old ways and links.

Citizens of the twentieth century have been left with that vague and abstract entity, the nation, as the focus of their loyalty and affection. Now many observers are wondering whether new ethnic, regional, and cultural ties are overriding or at least heavily supplementing the emphasis on national identity that has glued each Western country together since the French Revolution and that has sparked so many revolutions and national movements in this century.

In short, current students are going to live in a world that is so different from that in which adults today grew up that the former will require a new and basically universalistic education. This presents an unusual opportunity and challenge for world history in the schools.

The exact content of a world history course must be left to teachers and school systems, who should keep some guidelines in mind as they develop and organize these courses.

• First the world history course, however structured, must concentrate on main themes, civilizations, and developments. No one is likely to be able to command the data on 10,000 years of human history from 36 weeks of reading and class meetings.

The goal of the course should be to introduce students to the most crucial factors in human experience, not the endless details. To know the names and dates of the Roman emperors is less useful than to understand the principles of law and administration that the Roman Empire passed on to Western civilizations. Similarly, it is more important to know the basic tenets of the Islamic way of life than to memorize the political history of the Abbasid caliphate or the Ottoman Empire.

So world history must be taught by selection and simplification, practices that run counter to the training of most university history students and professors. But it is better by far that students comprehend—and remember—a basic, if oversimplified, schema of world development than that they memorize (and retain for a few days at best), say, the articles of the League of Nations Covenant.

• Second, world history must be real to students. They (and all of us) are passionately interested in people and in human interest stories. World history is about individuals and human experience. It is not about law or empire or the divine right of kings, except insofar as they represent efforts by individuals to shape their destiny.

Thus, students will be interested in world history only if it is personalized, if it is presented as the story of particular people with feelings, hopes, and behavior that students can relate to. Muhammad can be shown as a person struggling with a sense of his mission, and many members of the Nazi Party can be treated not as abstract monsters but as individual Germans who were caught in a system that they should have despised and overthrown but which intimidated them.

• Third, world history should be organized from a global perspective. One cannot tacitly define the subject as the emergence of classical and West European civilization, adding a few words about China, India, Buddhism, and Islam. Students must see that the legacy of traditional Chinese civilization, the world dominance of the Islamic empire before the rise of the West, and the persistence of Indian values and beliefs are all as vital to understanding today's world as are the Magna Carta or the Thirty Years' War. And when students examine the twentieth century, they should see that the impact of industrialization, the growth of world trade and population, and the dangers of world strife are common phenomena for all peoples and societies, not something peculiar to Western Europe and the United States.

• Finally, and perhaps most importantly, every effort should be made to encourage students to empathize with the history of their fellow human beings. If world history is presented as remote and abstract, students will indeed be bored and sullen. But if it is presented as vivid and concrete, then students will be excited about the subject. Somehow students must be convinced that our history is part of us and that the only way they can understand themselves is to understand the human struggles that preceded them.

While these precepts may seem very demanding, skillful teachers can put them to effective use in the classroom. More important than curriculum, materials, or school rules are the will, interest, and concern of individual teachers. If they believe in the importance of world history in preparing young people for the world of tomorrow, students, too, will both believe and learn. □

Every day, Barbara Marshall leaves her parents' home in northern Virginia for her job in Washington, DC. She takes a bus, then the subway into town, then another bus out Massachusetts Avenue to Vice-President Mondale's residence. The guards at the gate know her. She goes to the greenhouse, confers briefly with her supervisor, and sets to work, planting, watering, pruning, transplanting—providing for fresh flower beds and cut flowers as the seasons change.

Barbara is deaf and legally blind. Her speech is not readily understandable; she is teaching her supervisor sign language. But she's a delightful young person, says the supervisor, and more than that: she's good, very good, with the plants. She knows her job.

Barbara was trained as a horticultural assistant at the Arlington (Virginia) Career Center. This training prepared her for productive and satisfying work.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND THE HANDICAPPED

"If I weren't getting training in school," said 17-year-old Gena, "I'd probably be going to work at a day-care center when I finish. I like kids, but I don't think I could take being with them all the time. I prefer what I'm learning now—typing, filing, and talking on the phone.

"I've had to work hard in the vocational classes, but if it weren't for them, I'd be skipping school, failing, and not getting anywhere in life."

This was Gena's reply when I asked her about the value of vocational training. She had found her niche in a clerical practices course.

In her first years in school, Gena's progress was slower than that of most of her classmates. In the sixth grade, she was diagnosed as having minimal brain injury and began receiving special education services.

She had problems until she entered vocational training. Now, her attitude and outlook are as beautiful as the glowing smile that lights her face when she describes her career plans—plans that had not even begun to develop until she entered her first vocational class.

By TERRY MOYNAHAN
Instructor, Vocational Education for the Handicapped, Austin (Texas) Independent School District.

As an instructor of a vocational education for the handicapped (VEH) class, I am interested in the impressions of students who are participating in vocational programs. I have spoken with many such students—both those presently enrolled in classes and those who were formerly enrolled—and know their opinions to be of great value in determining strengths and weaknesses of the programs.

When students discuss these programs, their comments usually center on several topics: the motivation and direction the programs give them, the self-confidence they develop as a result of developing skills, the pace of the classes and the number of students in them, the characteristics of their teachers, and the accessibility of various courses.

• Some students say vocational education motivates them to go to school and gives them direction. For example, Gena had had problems with attendance and lack of direction. She said, "I used to skip school a lot before I got into the clerical practices class. I really felt left out. I guess people thought because I was in a special ed class that I was stupid, that I didn't know any-

thing. I think that once I began getting training and knew where I was going I didn't let them put me down anymore. I told them I could do just as good as they could, and I proved it, too."

In Gena's case, vocational education helped motivate her to a more serious approach to education and put an end to her attendance problems, also. "Once I was in the clerical course I looked forward to it, so I was in school all the time. When you get into activities you really like, you don't skip."

• Students also repeatedly mention that vocational education builds self-confidence. Tracey, a student in a clerical course, discussed this subject. "I'm much better at typing now than I ever thought I could be, although I had taken a typing class before. The difference between the two is the confidence I have now because the teacher I have now understands that I learn slow and goof up. If the teacher gives you a hard time, you lose confidence. But you can regain it if the teacher takes time with you."

Gena agreed. "As I developed skills, I developed confidence. My vocational teacher told me I could handle anything if I put my mind to it. I didn't believe it at first, but once I really got into it, I learned things."

At the end of the year in the VEH class, Gena had progressed enough to be placed in a vocational office education (VOE) course and in an on-the-job training program. Confident of herself and her VOE teacher, Gena recognized that the new class was different from the VEH class. "In the VOE class, the work's a little harder, and they don't go as slow as I'm used to, but I'm catching on. If it weren't for the VEH class, I might be failing the VOE class."

A former student, Carlos, who was classified as language/learning disabled, agreed with Gena. "I got to the point [in the VEH class] where I was going just a little faster than before and got promoted to a more advanced program."

Both students had acquired enough skills, knowledge, and confidence in the VEH class to move into mainstream education.

Although many educators have expressed concern about integrating special-needs students into regular classes, the progress Carlos and Gena have made supports the contention that other special students who are placed in an appropriate environment can succeed also.

• Pace refers to the rate at which learning takes place. Class size determines the student-teacher ratio and therefore reflects the amount of help individual learners can get from the teacher. Because the pace and class size are right in VEH classes, students notice the lack of pressure associated with completing tasks within designated time intervals.

Gena: "The best thing about my vocational training is that the work is not so hard at first. It's at a pace that is comfortable. The work increases gradually as you go along with your lessons, but the deadlines are reasonable. No unnecessary rush, and you get your work done."

Richard, a former student who is now doing prefab residential framing, added, "If there were more students, there wouldn't be enough time for everyone to get enough help." He said he had felt comfortable with a student-teacher ratio of about 10 to 1.

• In commenting on the characteristics of teachers, students expressed a strong preference for teachers who are sensitive and humane.

Tracey: "I had a lot of problems with attendance before I started Mrs. S's class. I wanted to quit school. But Mrs. S. understands me, and I'm bringing up my grades."

"We get more help and patience from our VEH teacher, and the students have more patience, too," Claire, another student in a vocational class, added.

These comments point out some distinct advantages that VEH teachers have over regular vocational teachers. The most important is their experience and training in dealing with handicapped students.

• In discussing accessibility of courses, special-needs students often feel that they get the "short end of the stick." It's difficult not to agree with them to some extent.

Handicapped students often find themselves training in fields for which they have little interest, simply because VEH course offerings do not include training in the area of their primary vocational interest.

Commenting on accessibility, Carlos, who is out of school and working successfully as a carpenter, ventured, "I don't think there are enough classes for special students. They can't get training for many careers. If a guy wants to take a regular vocational class and they know he's special ed, he may not be able to take it. And where's he going to be standing? Outside. He might have to settle for second or third choice."

Seven years after the passage of the Rehabilitation Act (PL 93-112) and five years after the passage of the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (PL 94-142), special-needs students are participating in a wide range of vocational programs. Some special students are progressing satisfactorily in regular classes, and many are setting their own pace in recently developed special-needs programs.

Yet a surprising number of students finish their education with embarrassingly limited vocational training. One reason is the limited funding available for expanding vocational programs for the handicapped.

Another problem is the difficulty of placing students in an appropriate program. Probably because of the limited number of programs, some students are placed inappropriately, and these students do not experience the success that others do.

Two important characteristics of students who are successful in these programs are a specific career interest in the particular training program and a general readiness for vocational training. Lacking these qualities, students seldom succeed in the classes. More prevocational programs are needed to help students develop an interest in a particular career while acquiring readiness skills such as the ability to follow instructions, stay on task, and control behavior.

Special-needs vocational students do not doubt the value of vocational education. Rather, they take advantage of available opportunities to develop skills, knowledge, and attitudes that will prepare them for mainstream education and permanent employment. For the most part, they are overwhelmingly positive about their experiences. They speak proudly of the confidence gained from jobs well done and of their dreams for the future. □

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND THE HANDICAPPED (continued)

WHAT'S HAPPENING IN NEW JERSEY?

At the New Jersey Education Association (NJEA), an important part of our job is to provide organizational assistance to local associations on instructional issues. Recently, our phones have been ringing continually with calls from anxious vocational educators. They are seeking help with questions about the placement of handicapped students in their classes. Some of these questions and their answers follow:

By CHARLES W. WALKER, JR.
Associate Director of Instruction, New Jersey Education Association.

What does the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (PL 94-142) say about mainstreaming handicapped children into regular school classes?

The word *mainstreaming* does not appear in the new federal regulations on PL 94-142. The federal regulations mandate that to the maximum extent possible, and where appropriate, handicapped students should be provided education in the "least restrictive environment." For some students this "least restrictive environment" is not a regular classroom.

The federal regulations mandate that decisions on the placement of handicapped students be made only after formal evaluation and classification of the student and development of an individualized education program (IEP) for the student. The student's teachers, the parents, and the student, where appropriate, are all supposed to take part in this process.

Some districts, without proper planning and consideration, have mistakenly scheduled all handicapped students into regular classrooms, thinking that by doing this, they are complying with federal law.

When this has happened—and it shouldn't—the phones at NJEA start to ring.

HOW THREE LAWS ARE CHANGING THE PICTURE

Three major pieces of legislation are giving strong impetus to efforts to expand vocational services for the handicapped. Together these laws have the power to create opportunities long overdue for handicapped persons to participate fully in the mainstream of society. Here's how the three laws fit together and reinforce one another.

The Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 (PL 94-142) establishes the right of every handicapped child to a free appropriate education in "the least restrictive environment." In the words of the law, this includes the right to appropriate vocational education.

The law sets forth the following provisions:

- Every state that receives funds under the law must ensure that a free appropriate education is provided for all handicapped children aged three to 18 who are found to be in need of special education and related services. [No later than September 1, 1980, states must ensure such an education for all handicapped people aged 19 to 21 as well.]
- Individualized education programs (IEP's) must be drawn up for children on all school levels—from preschool through high school. These must be reviewed annually.
- Individually designed education services must be provided not only for children in classrooms but for handicapped children who are homebound or in hospitals or in institutions, or private agencies if the public school places them there.
- Teachers, along with parents and, when appropriate, the

Recently, for example, a vocational education teacher called and said excitedly—

Yesterday, four handicapped students classified as emotionally disturbed were put into my metal shop class, which already had 22 students in it.

There are only 20 work stations in the shop. Now I have 26 students!

I received no instructions from my supervisors on how to work with these new students. I have no certification or course work whatsoever in education of the handicapped.

What's going to happen when we start to use machinery and tools that can be dangerous? I fear for the safety of the four new students and the other 22 as well.

The administration tells me that, in a month or two, they will provide an instructional guide to help me. Meanwhile, they say, "Stay cool. Mainstreaming is mandated by the government, and these students must stay in your class."

Is this true? Help!

What provisions have been made to ensure appropriate class size in classes that have handicapped students?

The class size issue is not adequately addressed in federal regulations. Moreover, most states and local districts have no requirements about maximum class sizes for regular classrooms.

Several states, however, have regulations on the maximum class sizes and/or pupil-teacher ratios for various kinds of self-contained special education classes that a certified teacher of the handicapped teaches. New Jersey is one. Chapter 28 of the New Jersey Administrative Code sets the following maximum number of pupils for self-contained classes for special students:

Auditorily handicapped—eight pupils
Chronically ill—15 pupils
Communication handicapped—eight pupils
Emotionally disturbed—eight pupils
Mentally retarded—educable—15 pupils
Mentally retarded—eligible for day training—nine pupils per classroom with a pupil-staff ratio of 3 to 1
Mentally retarded—trainable—10 pupils
Multiple handicapped—eight pupils
Neurologically impaired—eight pupils
Orthopedically handicapped—10 pupils
Perceptually impaired—12 pupils
Socially maladjusted—12 pupils
Visually handicapped—eight pupils.

These requirements recognize that handicapped students deserve special attention on an individualized basis when in the hands of a specially certified teacher. Unfortunately, the regulations for PL 94-142 set no requirements for maximum class size or pupil-to-teacher ratio for the regular classroom into which handicapped students are placed and where there is no specially certified teacher of the handicapped. Moreover, New Jersey and most other states have set no such requirements.

It is perfectly legal in most schools to integrate 20 or more handicapped students at one time into a vocational education classroom or any other regular classroom. The implications of this are perhaps most critical in the vocational ed class because of the possible danger to students from equipment. The job of the vocational education teacher becomes almost an impossibility.

Vocational education teachers are very aware of the responsibility they have to ensure that students are trained to use equipment properly. If students are injured in their classes, these teachers face the possibility of being sued or being held liable.

Therefore, they should be aware of what kind of liability provisions their state law contains. If it has no save- or hold-harmless provision to protect teachers against financial loss for acts of negligence committed in the line of duty, the teachers association, where state law permits, should bargain an indemnification and hold-harmless clause as part of its collective bargaining agreement.

Even if the state law does have a hold-harmless provision, it is advisable for teachers to incorporate it as a part of their contract. This would allow them to bring cases involving questions

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student, must be included in conferences about decisions affecting each student's IEP. The school administration is responsible for seeing that all service personnel who work with a handicapped student are informed about, and involved in implementing, the student's IEP.

It would be well for teachers to keep in mind that IEP's must include necessary vocational services where appropriate. At the junior high school and senior high school levels, it is particularly important to include appropriate vocational education and to be sure that each student is afforded equal opportunity to acquire the knowledge and the skills to become self-sufficient.

The Vocational Education Act Amendments of 1976 (PL 94-482) was passed to strengthen the abilities of states to provide vocational education—especially to groups for whom the need is most acute, including the handicapped. This law has an important relationship to PL 94-142.

PL 94-482 provides funds for vocational services for handicapped students such as vocational guidance and counseling and job placement and follow-up services.

The law extends help not only to handicapped students but to disabled individuals of all ages who need vocational education. It requires that—

- Ten percent of federal funds allocated to states for vocational education be spent on the excess costs of making modifications (on equipment and facilities, for example) and for providing services and other activities to ensure appropriate education for handicapped students in regular or special vocational programs. These special funds may go to school districts for secondary school programs and also to postsecondary adult vocational education programs and community colleges.
- Funds not be allocated automatically. Local education systems (and postsecondary schools) must apply to states for a share of the money.
- Vocational education programs that use these funds in secondary schools carry out the goals of PL 94-142 and comply with its requirements. This means that all the rights guaranteed under PL 94-142 are extended to handicapped students served under the Vocational Education Act.
- Vocational education plans for a student be included in

Ken Kennedy spent the summer as the first handicapped student to participate in the Lawrence Livermore Laboratory's (LLL) machineshop training program. Kennedy, a machine tool technology student at Chabot College in Hayward, California, is paralyzed and has only limited use of his hands and arms.

Kennedy used a special wheelchair that he designed for use in a machine shop. Using an electric motor, the wheelchair raises and lowers like a forklift, allowing Kennedy to work safely with lathes, milling machines, and other heavy equipment.

Based on Kennedy's success, LLL's machine-shop program will now be open to other disabled students working at the Laboratory.

LLL is operated by the University of California for the U.S. Department of Energy.

his or her IEP.

• Advisory councils be set up—on both state and local levels. The state council must include vocational education teachers presently teaching in local education agencies and "one or more individuals...who have special knowledge, experience, or qualifications with respect to the special education needs of physically or mentally handicapped persons." Although the law does not require representation of the handicapped on local advisory councils, teachers and advocacy groups can and should press for consumer representation to speak for the rights and needs of disabled individuals.

• Five-year state plans be drawn up in order for a state to receive funding under this law. Plans must show how the 10 percent allotment will be used to meet the needs of handicapped individuals and how vocational education programs will coordinate with special education programs. These plans must be updated annually.

In drawing up such plans, a state must gather the views of many people, including teachers, parents, administrators, and school board members. Hearings must be held to give everyone concerned a chance to speak up. It is important for teachers to study these plans carefully to see how responsive they are to existing needs.

• Local school systems submit annual plans to the state, outlining how they propose to meet vocational education needs and what programs they want to start or expand. Teachers should find out when hearings will be held on these plans. Their input is crucial.

Teachers, parents, and consumers can get copies of proposed plans, information about when and where hearings will be held, and other facts about vocational education in their area by contacting appropriate state and local officials. (Each state has a coordinator of vocational education for the handicapped in the Division of Vocational Education in its Department of Education.)

Teachers can find out from their local UniServ representatives who is responsible for these services in their local school systems. (Note: When requesting a copy of state or local plans, teachers should ask that the section on services for handicapped students be identified and that they get copies of all updates and modifications of these plans.)

Equal opportunities must be provided for handicapped students to be educated and trained for work.

of teacher liability under the purview of an arbitrator.

Will prospective vocational teachers and those already in the classroom receive proper training on teaching the handicapped?

The key to making vocational education work and work well for handicapped students is proper preservice and in-service training for vocational teachers.

College students preparing for careers in vocational education need adequate courses at the undergraduate and graduate levels on educating the handicapped. These courses should provide specific experiences in the classroom and include methods of educating the handicapped.

Providing suitable preservice training for vocational ed teachers may sound like an easy task to accomplish, but few college courses on teaching vocational subjects to the handicapped exist—even though it has been more than two years since PL 94-142 went into effect. New teachers continue to be employed in new vocational ed positions with no preservice training on educating the handicapped.

In-service training programs for vocational ed teachers present special considerations. In 31 states where bargaining laws exist, the terms and conditions of a contract may dictate re-

Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 affects both of these laws. It is a civil rights law and prohibits discrimination on the basis of handicap in private or public programs that receive federal financial assistance. If such programs violate Section 504, they may lose their federal funds.

Regulations for Section 504 spell out obligations of agencies that receive federal funds and have a sweeping effect on public school programs for handicapped students—including vocational education programs. In addition to reaffirming every handicapped student's right to a free appropriate education, the law includes the following important requirements:

- Handicapped persons must have opportunities to participate in, or benefit from, services equal to those that are provided to others.
- Postsecondary vocational programs and colleges that receive federal funds may not discriminate against otherwise qualified applicants on the basis of their handicaps, and they are required to make accommodations so that qualified handicapped students can participate in their programs. The U.S. Supreme Court has held, however, in the case of *Southeastern Community College, V, Davis*, that "nothing in the language or history of Section 504 reflects an intention to limit the freedom of an educational institution to require reasonable physical qualifications for admission to a clinical training program."
- All programs and services must be readily accessible to handicapped individuals. These may be made accessible by changing their locations or providing alternative ways of delivery systems for handicapped individuals to participate in and benefit from them. Agencies and organizations, including schools and colleges, have until June 1980 to make necessary structural changes.

These three laws have similar tough provisions. All three call for equal opportunities for handicapped students to be educated and trained for work. □

This article has been adapted from "Vocational Education—An End to Dependency," which appeared in the Summer 1978 issue of *Common Sense from Closer Look*, a publication of the Parent's Campaign for Handicapped Children and Youth.

quirements for such programs. Negotiating provisions for these programs, such as costs, time schedules, and released time for teachers, can become complicated. Even in states where bargaining laws do not exist, boards of education must consider these aspects of in-service programs.

PL 94-142 provides money to states for in-service training through "comprehensive personnel development funds." These funds have not yet created many meaningful in-service training programs for vocational ed teachers, because of the time that elapses between the appropriation of funds and their use at the local level. The money filters from the federal government to the state and then the local district. The local district has ultimate responsibility for making in-service work, regardless of what seed money filters down from above.

Vocational ed teachers should be directly involved in determining what kinds of in-service programs will best help them meet the unique needs of their students. All too often, in-service programs are geared for the regular classroom teachers of academic subjects. At best, these programs give teachers general information about handicapped students.

Vocational ed teachers need this information, of course, but they also need to know how to ensure the safety of handicapped students around machinery, behavior characteristics of the different types of handicapped individuals, vocational teaching methods for the handicapped, and a long list of other subjects.

It takes four to five years of full-time college course work to become a certified teacher of the handicapped. The vocational ed teacher cannot be expected to gain similar—and necessary—knowledge for teaching the handicapped at one in-service session.

In some districts, some of the time, handicapped students are working well in vocational ed programs. Turning these superb exceptions into the rule will take time, money, consideration, and commitment. Federal and state regulations may have to be revised and enforced if vocational educators are to be equipped with the resources and support they need in order to meet the needs of all of their students. ☐

Q and A

Recently, Brenda Fox, professional associate, NEA Instruction and Professional Development, discussed vocational education for the handicapped with William D. Halloran, State Plan Officer, in what was then USOE's Bureau of Education for the Handicapped. Excerpts from their discussion follow.

What developments do you see in the 1980's in the field of vocational education for the handicapped?

There is going to be much more emphasis on accountability. By that I mean that taxpayers are going to ask, "Is all that investment in education for the handicapped worth it?" and parents of the handicapped are going to ask, "Will that education prepare our children to function independently when they're adults?" So the real questions will be, "Has the intervention of education made any difference in the adult life-styles of handicapped persons?" "Are they better adjusted and more suitably employed than they would otherwise have been?"

Traditionally, in special education, we attempted to raise the academic level of handicapped students to a certain norm, and we bombarded them with a lot of remedial education. But the acquisition of basic skills does not translate into making someone healthy, wealthy, and wise. So we're going to have to ask, "What are the skills necessary to survive as a participating member of the community?"

So I think in the eighties, we're going to see an emphasis on the identification of what employers—in business and industry—mean by a qualified worker, and schools are going to assume a responsibility for developing handicapped individuals who are qualified for jobs. Other agencies have a part to play, too, of course.

What would you advise teachers to do to increase vocational opportunities for handicapped students?

Accentuate students' abilities and identify and teach the competencies necessary for them to be employed as skilled workers. You know where I'm coming from on that? I'm saying that rather than treating the education of handicapped students as a charitable cause, teachers are going to have to sell their handicapped students as persons with marketable skills.

What is the biggest problem facing teachers in this area?

Their lack of experience in the work setting. As products of traditional training programs, many teachers are unfamiliar with the skills necessary to succeed in a variety of different jobs.

What are the characteristics of a good vocational program for handicapped students?

One that takes into account three things when defining its broad instructional goals: the needs of students, the demands that society will be placing upon those students when they are adults, and the expectations of employers. If it's not a saleable skill, why teach it? The training should be relevant to the marketplace and directed toward equipping students with the skills they need to become functional members of our communities.

What are your hopes for the future in this field?

That public education agencies will employ more handicapped individuals.

If you go into a public school nowadays, it looks different from what it would have 10 years ago. You will probably see a group of kids with a variety of disabilities participating in all aspects of the school program. But you would be hard pressed to see a handicapped teacher or administrator. Hopefully, in the future, the handicapped will be part of the instructional staff. ☐

For more information about vocational education and the handicapped, contact the NEA-IPD Information Center, 1201 16th Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

DEVELOPING A WRITING-ORIENTE

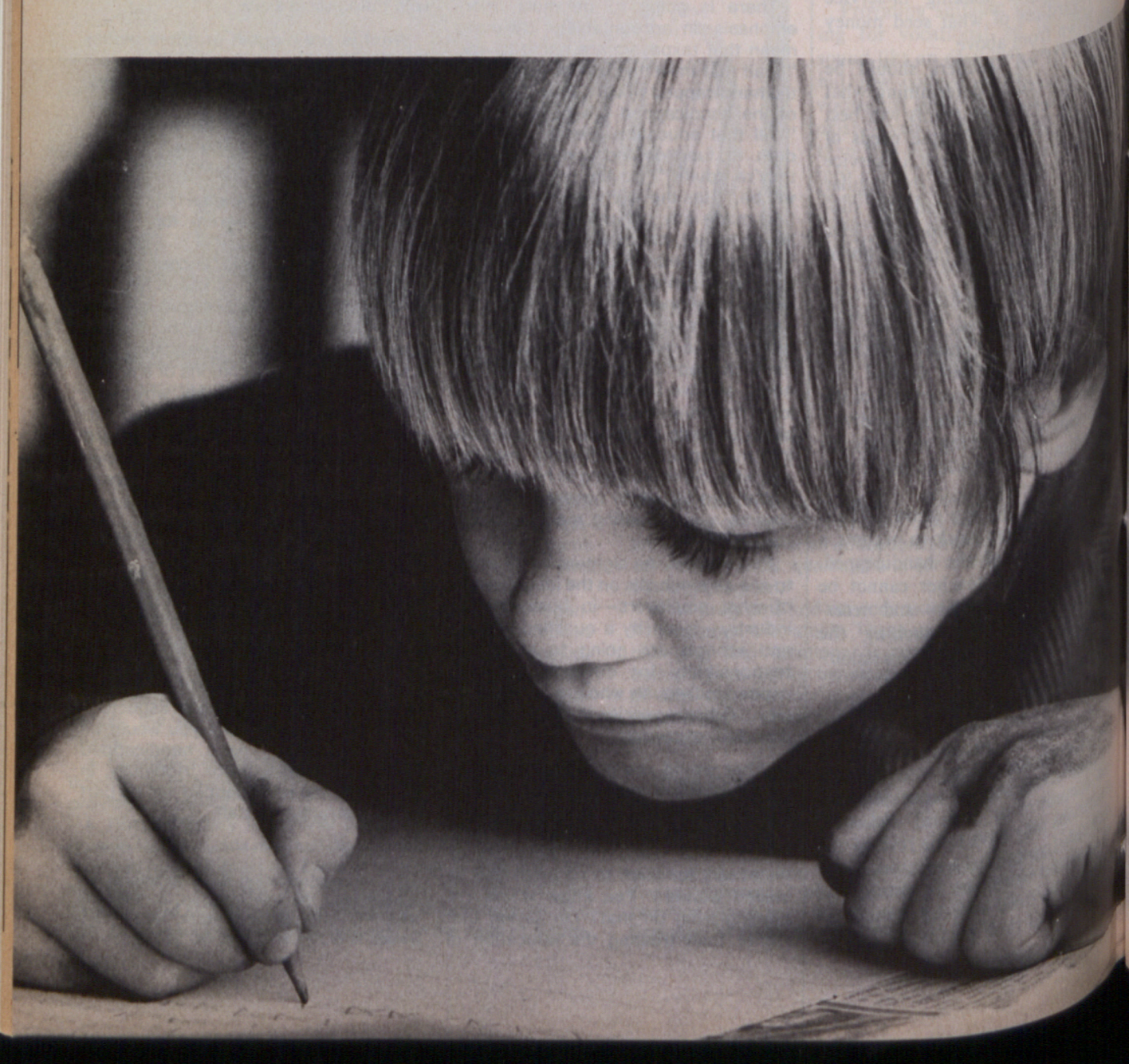
Every face showed concentration as the class sat in a tight circle, listening to one child read. His story was about a difficult moment in his relationship with his parents. His writing was vivid and personal; it conveyed his feelings well.

When the story ended, there was a moment of silence, then a rush of comments from the others about the boy's difficult moment and about their own experiences. By being so candid in his story and by telling it so well, this fifth grade writer might have exposed himself to silly or sarcastic remarks from his classmates. But there were none.

As conversation about the story tapered off, someone else announced that she had a story to share. She said the story was embarrassing because it concerned a first attempt at a new sport. This reader was teacher Kate Jamentz of Soquel, California. Her story revealed part of her life that would normally be unknown to her students: a first attempt at roller skating. Through narrative and dialogue, the class saw her, along with two friends, struggling to master a skill, tripping at first, then gaining confidence.

Both writers, student and teacher, had written personal stories from direct experience. For settings, they had reached beyond the school. For subject matter, they had used issues in their own lives that would not normally be part of the school day.

By CASEY MURROW
Continuing Education Coordinator and Assistant Professor, University of Vermont; Former Elementary School Teacher.



They had done what most writers—amateur or professional, eight years old or 75 years old—do. They write from their personal experience of the world around them, whether the form their writing takes is a short story, poem, essay, or newspaper or magazine article. Some write about an experience they have already had. Others seek out an experience in order to write about it, for example, visiting a wholesale market in a large city in order to write about the people, foods, smells, and noises of the place.

Student writers must do the same

SCHOOL

thing. As a teacher in Rochester, New York, noted, "The student has to write about what he cares about, in the context of his own life. To find relevance in the act, the writer must associate with his own time, his own environment, and the concerns with which he can identify." Her point is important for all of us to remember as we work with students on their writing, or as we try writing ourselves.

Fantasy, Too!

Personal experience is valuable for more than descriptive and narrative writing. It forms part of all the writing that we do. For example, a description of a cloud in an imaginative poem requires observation and knowledge even if the poem tells the story of a myth or allegory.

Likewise, fantasy, which we often consider takes us away from the real world, has its roots in experience. Only by starting from some known point can the child or adult author fantasize an event or a world that is known only in his or her own mind.

Three Constraints

Experience in the real world remains the child's motivation for writing. Whether the story is joyful or sad, it is always powerful if we, as teachers, allow the writing to flow without too many outside constraints.

Constraints that make good writing difficult are not new to our schools. Although none of them will go away by itself, all can be dealt with imaginatively. The three major ones are lack of time, lack of space, and fragmentation of the curriculum.

Lack of time affects both the amount of uninterrupted time students are given to write and how often they are given opportunity to write. Teachers with whom I worked on issues of children's writing last summer in Portland, Oregon, agreed almost unanimously that they had been expecting too much writing too fast.

These teachers did not come to this decision by debating the issue. They had themselves tried out assignments that they might have given to children or to adults.

Finding enough time for writing is a great problem in school because the day is short. Allowing for longer blocks of writing time and the varying speeds of each student is no easy task. However, the teachers in Portland felt that they had to find ways, in their separate schools, to manage this. I think that we all have to.

In some schools, teachers can deal more easily with the second constraint, lack of space. Trying to write while sitting at one's own desk in a classroom is not always easy. If the classroom permits otherwise healthy noise and activity, the writer may suffer considerably.

Many teachers have solved the problem by creating a writing center in their rooms. This area can be equipped with a table and chair and a few useful tools and books. Likely materials are pens and pencils; glue for mounting illustrations; a dictionary or personal wordbooks; folders of story starters; photographs; and, most important, the work of many children.

A center can be separated from the rest of the room in a variety of ways. Fabric dividers are favorites of mine. They dampen sound and create pleasant visual patterns without too much distraction.

A tape recorder can make the center the place for students to tape their oral stories. It is an appropriate place for the teacher to take dictation from students with major writing difficulties.

Expression is at least as important as the mechanics of writing. Teachers with a writing center in their room have a fine opportunity to show children that writing is not an end in itself but a chance to convey experiences to others and to strengthen one's own feelings and one's understanding of the world.

The third constraint, fragmentation of the curriculum, demands a great deal of attention from each of us who works with children. Too often, we think of writing only as part of language arts. Opportunities for writing, however, exist in natural science, social studies, practical math, and other fields. Helping children see the links between these many subjects is hard, but we can begin to do it by helping children use their personal experience in writing.

Projects for Integrating

By ourselves, in our own classrooms, we cannot modify and create curriculum all the time. We can, however, keep our eyes open and our ears attuned to special moments from which projects can grow. When those projects incorporate writing, students' motivation to do a good job on the written piece is often high.

> Here is a potpourri of ways to make writing from personal experience a central element in the life of every school.

Teachers can create special moments by reaching out to people and the natural and human-made environment beyond the confines of the school. This may mean taking children on short field projects outside the school or bringing things and people into the school. Both approaches have value, which I can illustrate with two examples.

Norman Krampetz, a sculptor in Wilmington, Vermont, enjoys working with students. In 1976, with the help of the local school and by contributing much of his own time, Norm moved a part of his studio into an open area in Deerfield Valley Elementary School, Wilmington, Vermont, adjacent to the library. For most of three weeks, he worked with groups of children, sculpting in clay, whittling and carving

Interviewing elder citizens can help youngsters to write about their communities.

wood, and talking about what they all were doing. The results were a great interest in clay and woodworking, many fine discussions, written work about what the children had created, and photographs of the pieces of sculpture.

No child had to leave the school in order to work with Norm. His presence was not meant to supplant an art program; it was not meant to fit into a slot in the curriculum at all. Rather, it gave students a particular experience for its own sake and the sake of motivating them to do some schoolwork related to the experience.

The project was not planned to influence writing in the school; it did so, however, just because many children were accustomed to expressing themselves in writing. They found it natural to write about this sculptor and the work they had done with him.

In 1979, across the continent from the sculptors, head teacher Joel Pelcyger led a convoy of parents' cars away from the Pluralistic School in Santa Monica, California. They were on their way to Sycamore Canyon and a campsite by a stream just 300 meters from the Pacific Ocean. Teachers, parents, and children camped overnight. All were assigned jobs, but they also had time to play and to decide where to sleep. In subsequent days, drawing, music, writing, and new relationships among children came from that day and a half near the coast.

Once again, the writing was the result not of assignments, but of teachers' and children's willingness to use writing as a means of recording and sharing experiences.

Not all of us can find a sculptor who will come to school. Many of us cannot or do not wish to go camping. But all of us, as teachers, can reach beyond the school to bring people and things to students or to bring the children to those resources.

For ideas about activities, I recommend Helen Ross Russell's *Ten-Minute Field Trips* (New York: Doubleday, 1970). Most of Russell's suggestions are suitable for the city, but many are useful in any setting. Other resources are listed at the end of this article.

Toward a Writing-Oriented School

One of the joys of teaching is that we can work with children in ways that put our individual talents to use. Children should be exposed to the varied talents and interests of many adults inside school as well as outside of it.

A teacher whom I met in Oregon helped me to see one sensible way to organize a school around talents and interests when she talked about a writing-oriented school and what that could mean for students. As a group of us developed the idea later, we realized that such a school could capitalize on all the talents of its teachers, in science, math, the arts, geography, or a special craft.

The faculty would agree that the many facets of writing would become part of the everyday life of the students in school. Displays of writing would be prominent. The library would feature student-made books. Existing or new school publications would portray the life of the school through the students' own words. Most of all, the faculty would agree to grasp opportunities to assign writing in all aspects of the curriculum.

A group of determined teachers, a teacher center, or some other strong force is necessary to create a writing-oriented school because our society has drifted far away from recognizing the usefulness and fun of writing. In the schools, this attitude manifests itself in

a much greater concern with reading than with writing.

Recognizing Student Writers

Suppose your classroom or school were oriented to writing and publicly committed to it. You would want to recognize some of the student writers for their skills in specific areas. Perhaps they should extend their experience beyond their own school and meet with other young writers at nearby schools.

Anne Watt, former director of the Mountain Towns' Teacher Center in southern Vermont, thought of a way to do just that in 1977. She began holding authors' lunches at the Teacher Center, located in a school in Mountain Town.

Children from different grades in the school came, eight or 10 at a time. They brought their own lunches, and the Teacher Center set out fruit, cookies, and juices on a round table. Anne and the students ate and then read their own stories, poems, or other writing.

The Teacher Center also drew the teachers of these students together to talk about the children's work and about their own involvement in writing.

Often, the experience and the writing provide adequate involvement and reward for the writer. Once writing is underway in the classroom, however, many teachers and students are eager to create a product that can be shared with others. Sometimes they produce a newspaper or magazine and distribute it to other classes, parents, and the local community.

A kind of writing and publishing that has seen great success in junior and senior high schools is *cultural journalism*. Young cultural journalists gather oral history and write it up in the manner of *Foxfire* (published in Rabun Gap, Georgia). Cultural journalism brings students into contact with many people in their community and gives everyone involved with the project a special sense of the history and people of that community.

One writing product that I have always treasured is *Pencil to Press Poetry*, a booklet produced annually for several years by Alice Chapman's sixth grade class in Brattleboro, Vermont. *Pencil to Press* is exactly what the name implies: poetry written, typeset on a very simple press, printed, and bound by students right in the classroom. Several issues of these small booklets have been valued by parents, children, and teachers as fine examples of children's work brought to completion.

Cultural journalism can also include the study of old cemeteries and other community records.

Teachers Get into the Act

Remember the example of teacher Kate Jamentz: She read her own story to her class, taking the same risks in exposing her thoughts and her words that her students took.

When we deal with learning experiences and writing for students, we must remember that the teacher should be involved in all these activities as well. We need to participate: to keep our own journals or to write alongside our students, putting pen to paper. We need to share "the context of our lives" just as students share theirs.

Teachers who believe writing is important can join together to make writing from personal experience a formal focus of their school's curriculum. Teachers, students, and the community at large all benefit from such involvement in a vital skill that has many rewards. □

Resources

The Teachers and Writers Collaborative in New York has done two books on children's writing, the *Whole Word Catalogs 1 & 2* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1977). Richard Larson has collected theories and techniques on teaching writing in *Children and Writing in the Elementary School* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1975). Donald Graves expresses a strong argument for writing in *Balance the Basics: Let Them Write* (New York: Ford Foundation, 1978). Kenneth Koch helps us all to relax and write poetry in *Wishes, Lies, and Dreams* (New York: Vintage, 1970).

Two excellent resources for motivating writing are David Weitzman's *My Backyard History Book* (Boston: Little, Brown, 1975) and *Underfoot* (New York: Scribners, 1976). The many *Foxfire* books, edited by Eliot Wigginton, can help teachers use cultural journalism with students. Even a book that does not deal with writing may serve teachers well: for example, Frederick Franck's *The Zen of Seeing* (New York: Vintage, 1973) presents a case for careful observation. Teachers can read about how the whole curriculum works together, with writing as a major focus, in Dorothy and John Paull's *Yesterday I Found* (Boulder: University of Colorado, 1972).

"The Reign of ETS"

a brief summary of the Ralph Nader report on the Educational Testing Service

"Life may have less mystery, but it will also have less disillusionment and disappointment. Hope will not be a lost source of strength, but it will be kept within reasonable bounds." These words, which appeared in the 1950 annual report of a new organization called the Educational Testing Service (ETS), heralded the emergence of a new kind of corporate power, the power to assign millions of people to their places in education and the economy and to change the way they think about their own potential.

Some of the nation's most powerful foundations, universities, and corporations created and supported the Educational Testing Service. It combined institutional influence with a bold vision of social planning, which encompassed, as Henry Chauncey, the company's founding president, put it in the 1950 *Annual Report*, "the whole national man-power, woman-power, and child-power." Unlike more conventional organizations, ETS was not in business to make a profit, sell products, teach students, or wield government power.

Instead, operating primarily through the medium of paper-and-pencil multiple-choice tests, ETS would convince people that it had measured their minds and would then use those measurements to shape their educational and career opportunities.

Thirty years later, the ETS vision of a society where ETS multiple-choice tests defined the reasonable bounds of hope had become a reality for millions of people.

The Educational Testing Service sells more tests than Ford and General Motors, combined, sell new cars in the United States. It has more than 5,000 test centers worldwide, each part of an international network with more outposts than the U.S. Department of Defense. It is a network that extends, in the words of an ETS annual report, "from Antarctica to Zaire."

ETS tests influence, among other things, the chance to enter half of U.S. colleges, 75 percent of U.S. graduate programs, 80 percent of business schools, and 100 percent of law schools. They also influence the opportunity to sell insurance in Illinois; fight fire or walk a police beat in Philadelphia; become an officer in the Liberian

By ALLAN NAIRN *and* ASSOCIATES

NEA'S POSITION ON TESTING

NEA strongly supports testing and rigorous assessment of student performance.

NEA rejects, however, standardized tests that emphasize competition against a "norm" rather than educational goals. Large-scale, mass-administered standardized testing programs have moved away from the major and appropriate objectives of testing: diagnosis of learning needs, prescription of instructional activities, and measurement of student progress in curriculum content.

We need to use our expertise, professional judgment, and influence with other educators and the public to end testing programs that abuse and harm students. Individually and collectively, teachers must challenge the testing industry and influence state departments of education and other groups to research, develop, and disseminate a broad range of alternatives to standardized tests for evaluating learning progress.

—**Willard McGuire,** *NEA president.* McGuire wrote at greater length on this subject in an introduction to "Standardized Testing: The Frustrating System That Tries Our Students," a kit on testing.

Developed by NEA Communications in cooperation with NEA Instruction and Professional Development, NEA Affiliate Services, and NEA Research, the kit has been distributed to state and local association presidents and to UniServ staff. It contains information on how to get parents and the community involved in the truth-in-testing issue, a checklist teachers can use to judge their own school's testing program, reprints of articles on testing, and an annotated bibliography on the subject.

One of several ads NEA offers to local education associations for use in local publications.

Yesterday, a bright child.

Today, "below average."

Meet Melanie. She's a first-grader who's just taken her first standardized test. Melanie is a bright and happy child; but she has just been branded "below average" by the people who make tests.

All through their lives, students are subjected to standardized IQ tests, Scholastic Aptitude Tests (SAT's), Graduate Record Examinations (GRE's), and many other tests. These tests don't measure what a student knows.

Yet people are classified by the tests as "above average" or "below average" and decisions about class placement, college admissions, and entering a profession are based on the results.

Parents need to know how children are being categorized. To find out more, write:

Name, address, and phone number of local association.

nea National Education Association
1201 16th Street, NW
Washington, DC 20036

Merchant Marine; practice law in 42 states; or receive a scholarship from the State of Georgia, Union Carbide, or the Brotherhood of Steamfitters. Every year, ETS multiple-choice tests judge 7 to 9 million people who are trying to advance through thousands of schools and 50 different occupations.

In 1978, ETS President William W. Turnbull wrote in a confidential corporate strategy memo, "We grew to be a large omnipresent organization . . . a powerful, little-known organization that many people had to deal with involuntarily in order to gain (or be denied) access to educational opportunities."

Perhaps more than any other single U.S. organization—business or government—ETS is in a position to determine what individuals will be permitted to attempt to do. Though there is persuasive evidence that ETS tests fail to predict academic and occupational performance, they are a shaping, often capricious, force.

Even a brief review of the tests ETS offers can suggest the sweep of their influence:

• **Preschool and Elementary.** ETS advertises the Cooperative Preschool Inventory for children aged three to five as a test that can measure within 15 minutes a child's "achievement in areas regarded as necessary for success in school," such as perception, thinking, and verbal expression. With the *Sequential Tests of Educational Progress* (*STEP*), *School and College Ability Tests* (*SCAT*), and *CIRCUS* tests (for young children), in addition to the *Preschool Inventory*, the 1978 ETS *Annual Report* boasted, "ETS now has tests available—for the first time—that permit monitoring a student's progress in the major areas of instruction from preschool through the twelfth grade."

• **High School Admission, Graduation, and Equivalency.** At Andover, Groton, the Dhahran Aramco School, and more than 450 of the world's most expensive private schools, students are chosen on the basis of the *Secondary School Admission Test*. In 1977, the ETS Basic Skills Assessment program tested 70,000 high school seniors, in many cases to determine whether they would be permitted to graduate. More than half a million people who in 1978 attempted to advance themselves by earning a high school diploma-equivalent were screened by the ETS-authored Tests of General Educational Development.

• **College Admission, Financial Aid, and Placement.** Beginning in seventh grade with the *Junior Scholastic Aptitude Test*, continuing with the *Preliminary Scholastic Aptitude Test (PSAT)*, and concluding (for high school at least) with the *Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT)*, students run a gamut of ETS tests to gain admission to, or financial aid for, college. Scholarships from organizations as diverse as Getty Oil Company and the State of New Jersey are granted according to scores on the *PSAT* as are, of course, the $12 million worth of National Merit and Achievement Scholarships that are awarded annually.

A 1976 College Board survey of member colleges found that 80 percent

considered test scores the "most important" variable in admission decisions. Students are also encouraged to use their *SAT* scores for self-selection; ETS publishes charts showing students how to calculate where their score would rank among other college applicants. The ETS College Scholarship Service's decisions provide the basis for college scholarship, loan, and work-study awards.

• **Graduate and Professional School Admission.** More than 75 percent of the 12,000 graduate programs listed in the *Graduate Programs and Admissions Manual 1979-1981* require the ETS *Graduate Record Examinations (GRE)*. Hundreds of fellowship-granting agencies also require the *GRE*'s. More than 80 percent of all business schools require the ETS *Graduate Management Admission Test (GMAT)*. Every accredited law school in America requires the ETS *Law School Admission Test (LSAT)*. In 42 states, the ETS *Multistate Bar Exam* is required for admission to the practice of law.

The ETS tests used in admission decisions are known as "aptitude" tests. According to ETS, an aptitude test measures "the capacity or potentiality of an individual for a particular kind of behavior." ETS claims that its aptitude tests can predict success by measuring potential for certain important kinds of thinking: ETS bulletins inform students that the tests measure such qualities as "the ability to understand what [they] read"; "certain mental abilities related to academic performance in law school"; "analytic ability as well as . . . verbal and quantitative ability."

The ability to predict first-year academic grades in college, graduate, or professional school is the empirical basis of ETS's claim to measure aptitude; a test's "validity" is often judged by how well it predicts this kind of future performance. ETS claims about the accuracy of their tests' predictions are bold. ETS President Turnbull, in a 1974 speech, claimed, "The evidence about college entrance tests as predictors of academic success is no longer a subject of legitimate dispute. . . . Most educators are quite familiar with the fact that the scores work in more cases than not, popular belief to the contrary notwithstanding."

ETS statements to students about the predictive accuracy of its tests are full of the word *perfect* and analogies to physical measuring tools. Alongside a diagram of an *SAT* score scale, drawn to resemble a thermometer, the bulletin for candidates receiving College Board scores states that "the chances are 2 out of 3" that one's score will "fall within a limited band around . . . the score you would earn if a test could measure your ability with perfect accuracy." ETS literature repeats the theme that although its tests are not *perfect* measuring instruments, even physical measurements are known to have some error. "Although test scores are good predictors of performances in college," writes William Angoff of ETS in an article explaining the *SAT* to counselors and teachers, "they are not perfect predictors."

This, to say the least, is putting it mildly. A physical measuring device such as the thermometer, which ETS officials often use to compare the accuracy of their tests, is accurate more than 95 percent of the time. According to figures compiled from 827 ETS validity studies conducted between 1964 and 1974, on the average, the *SAT* is more accurate than chance only 11.9 percent of the time in predicting first-year grades. Statisticians call this average accuracy a test's "percentage of perfect prediction." To see how often chance would predict grade ranking as well as a test within a group, the test's percent of perfect prediction is subtracted from 100 percent. This means that for the *SAT*, 88 percent of the time college grades could be predicted just as well by a random process, such as a roll of the dice. According to figures ETS presented in 1977, the average accuracy of the other ETS aptitude tests is about the same:

Percentage of Predictions in Which Random Prediction with a Pair of Dice Is as Accurate as an ETS Test	
SAT (college)	88%
LSAT (law school)	87
GRE (graduate school)	89
GMAT (business school)	92

Because test scores are not the only factor in admission—they are generally used along with previous grades—the 12 percent accuracy figure for the *SAT* actually overstates its practical predictive contribution. The compilation of ETS validity studies found that high school grades alone are about

TEACHERS AND STANDARDIZED TESTS

Standardized tests are widely used, usually inappropriately, to make decisions about pupil progress and the quality of school programs. Generally they produce "small answers to small questions." Teachers have little influence on standardized tests although their results greatly influence classroom practice.

The Educational Testing Service is a major producer of tests. The report summarized in the accompanying article points to a number of problems regarding the influence of this giant on the lives of teachers and students.

In order to improve present standardized-testing practices, teachers should find the answers to these questions:

- What testing does your state's legislation or state department of education require? Do these requirements promote learning?
- Have teachers been involved in determining the content of testing programs and the selection of tests?
- Do the tests adequately reflect the instructional program and curriculum of your school?
- Are important learning outcomes ignored by externally developed standardized tests?
- Are any measures used to assess student strengths so programs can be planned on that basis?
- In what ways can you contribute your expertise to make decisions about testing student achievement or developing assessment methods?
- Do parents, policymakers, and other citizens understand the limitations of standardized tests?

When answers to questions such as these are unsatisfactory to teachers, they should speak out through their organized profession. Such efforts can produce evaluation practices that truly promote high quality teaching and learning.

—**Frances Quinto,** *NEA Instruction and Professional Development.*

TRUE? WHO KNOWS? FALSE? ONLY TIME WILL TELL...
10-17
PERHAPS... COULD BE.. MAYBE..I DOUBT IT... DON'T COUNT ON IT...
MAYBE IN THE LONG RUN...IT ALL DEPENDS... WEATHER PERMITTING
SOME OF US, MA'AM SEE EVERYTHING IN SHADES OF GRAY
SCHULZ
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twice as good as the *SAT* in predicting college grades. And adding the *SAT* to high school grades only improved the accuracy of predictions by an average of 2.6 to 5 percent. This finding that the *SAT* has low predictive validity and makes little contribution to first-year grade prediction has been corroborated by an independent analysis of ETS validity studies by Douglas Porter and Warner Slack of the Harvard Medical School. Their findings will be published in a forthcoming issue of the prestigious *Harvard Educational Review*.

Marginal as they are, the predictions of first-year grades are the test's most accurate forecasts. Score correlations with grades in later years are lower still. Though the test purports to measure the aptitude to learn, Alexander Astin of the American Council on Education found that both low and high *SAT* scorers "showed similar gains in achievement during their undergraduate years." In a study of 36,581 students who entered 180 colleges in 1966, Dr. Astin found that the *SAT* had little ability to predict who will drop out of and who will persist in college: It provided an accuracy of only 3.2 percent for men and 2.9 percent for women. According to ETS figures, the *LSAT* is only 5 percent accurate in predicting who will graduate from law school. The *GRE* has a similar record in predicting who will obtain the Ph.D.

Various kinds of biographical questionnaires and personal-rating scales have been found to predict grades nearly as well as, or better than, test scores. In a series of studies, psychologist Gene Smith used student ratings of their classmates on such characteristics as work orientation and found that in several cases, a composite "strength of character" score was three times more successful in predicting post high school academic success than any combination of 13 "academic aptitude measures" such as the *SAT*. Professor Anne Anastasi of Fordham University (later a winner of the ETS Award for Distinguished Service to Measurement) and two associates developed a student biographical inventory and compared the correlations of both this measure and the *SAT* scores to success in college. "In each of the comparisons, the two parts of the *SAT*, taken separately, had lower correlations with the criterion than the biographical inventory."

Standardized tests' predictions of success outside of school are no better. One study of 10,000 people found that the number of significant correlations between test scores and occupational success "did not exceed what would be expected by chance." A 1979 report by ETS researcher Leonard Baird on student accomplishment beyond the classroom concluded flatly that, rather than test scores, "information about past accomplishments is the best predictor of future accomplishments."

Even if ETS admission tests could predict first-year grades, the long-term relevance of that prediction would be open to question: An analysis for the American College Testing Program of 46 studies conducted between 1902 and 1965 concluded, "College grades bear little or no relationship to any measures of adult accomplishment." As one ETS researcher wrote, "No one can be found who will seriously defend the freshman year grade-point average as an important gauge of anything very important in life's list of desirable values."

The fact that Black, Latino, and some other minority group students tend systematically to receive lower scores on ETS tests than White students is well known. Because of this, minority students in many cases must earn *higher* grades than Whites in order to have an equal chance of admission. ETS insists that the low scores of minorities do not reflect deficiencies in the test but deficiencies in the preparation and potential of the minority students themselves.

But because the tests only predict future success only slightly better than pure chance, the result of the clustering of minorities on the lowest score brackets is that a lower percentage of qualified minorities than of qualified Whites are admitted and given a chance actually to perform.

The ETS claim that its tests are not biased against minorities is based on a definition that assumes a test is not biased if it predicts the first-year grades of minorities about as accurately as it predicts the first-year grades of Whites. (This definition was developed by ETS researcher T. Anne Cleary.) This definition ignores the fact that since the validity of grade prediction is low for *both* Whites and minorities, and minorities tend to receive lower scores, they can be excluded by a test score that has little connection to their actual ability to succeed.

In 1971, Professors R. L. Thorndike and R. B. Darlington published separate papers that proposed new definitions of test bias. Thorndike's definition (as paraphrased by an ETS researcher) was that a test of low validity "is unfair to the lower scoring group of applicants, in the sense that the proportion of that group that qualifies on the test will turn out to be smaller than

the proportion who would be qualified on the job [or in school]." This struck home for ETS officials. In an internal memo dated September 24, 1971, ETS vice-president for statistical analysis Richard S. Levine wrote that the new definitions undermined the ETS claims: "The major conclusion is that the customary statistical criterion, sometimes attributed to Ann [sic] Cleary, is inadequate. The argument that bias does not exist if regression lines coincide for two groups *appears to be untenable.*" (Emphasis added.) Subsequent research by several scholars has indicated that according to Thorndike's definition, the use of aptitude tests in many actual admission practices does discriminate against minority students. ETS, despite the verdict of its vice-president, has continued to this day to use the Cleary definition to assert that its tests are free of bias.

The implications of this pattern of bias are severe. Roy D. Goldman and Melvin H. Widawski of the University of California at Riverside, who studied four schools in the University of California System, for example, found that the addition of the *SAT* to high school grades did little to increase the admission of students who actually succeeded in school, but resulted in the admission of "far fewer Black and Chicano students."

No studies have even attempted, however, to estimate how many college graduates, lawyers, doctors, and professional people have been lost to the Black, Latino, and other ethnic communities as a whole by the reliance on ETS aptitude tests to serve, in the words of an ETS researcher, "as the gatekeepers for much of society's rewards."

Many individuals who run powerful institutions, and many academics who write about them, contend that American society, and higher education in particular, used to be something of an aristocracy where wealth and privilege ruled and the future of individuals was shaped largely by their economic background. This system, they argue, has been replaced by selection according to merit. Economic class is said to have given way to, in Henry Chauncey's words, "the democracy of multiple-choice tests."

ETS President Turnbull sums up this view:

> The ability to perform well on tasks sampled by examinations, along with other common indices of accomplishments, has come largely to replace considerations of family or wealth or religion or ethnicity as a basis for acceptance into selective colleges and professional schools.

The implication by test professionals that standardized aptitude testing replaced ranking based on class with ranking based on merit is misleading. A ranking of people by *SAT* scores remains by and large a ranking of people by family income. The pattern is consistent over time, geographic region, and fine gradations of income. It is not simply a matter of penthouse versus tenement. The more money a person's family makes, the higher that person tends to score. People from homes with incomes of $21,000 tend to score higher than people from homes with incomes of $18,000; people from white-collar homes tend to score higher than people from blue-collar homes.

Relationship Between *SAT* Average and Parental Income (1973-74)

SAT Average	*Parent's Mean Income**
750-800	$24,124
700-749	21,980
650-699	21,292
600-649	20,330
550-599	19,481
500-549	18,824
450-499	18,122
400-449	17,387
350-399	16,182
300-349	14,355
250-299	11,428
200-249	8,639

SOURCE: *College Bound Seniors*, 1973-74, Table 21, p. 27.

The ranking by class prevails not just when large groups are averaged together; it also prevails among applicants from individual institutions. Less

*In the United States, the chances of being at a given income level are directly related to ethnic background. According to College Board figures, the parents of Black students taking the 1978-79 *SAT* had a mean income ($13,700) less than half that of the parents of White candidates (27,300). Puerto Rican ($14,500), Mexican-American ($16,500), and other minority students also came from families with significantly smaller mean incomes.

THE RIGHT TRACK

The school sent home the first danger signals when the child was in third grade: He had not scored well on standardized tests and might be steered down a remedial track.

His mother refused to believe what she heard.

"I thought something was haywire. This was a kid who had designed whole games and could work three-dimensional puzzles as a preschooler," she recalled.

"I took him to a specialist in educational psychology, who said he was a very, very bright, very creative kid, and then I went back to the school and said. 'OK, what's going on?' "

The public school in Los Angeles' Eagle Rock section backed off, and Steven Hufstedler was kept on the fast track. Today, at age 26, he is a third-year medical student at the University of California at Irvine.

His mother, Shirley Mount Hufstedler, stayed on the fast track, too.

Recently, after 18 years as a local, state, and federal judge, she became the nation's first secretary of education.

This small, forceful woman, daughter of a schoolteacher and a building contractor, brought from the bench a deep concern about how people and institutions treat children.

She told Senators at her confirmation hearing that one of her top priorities in the new $14 billion Department of Education would be to weigh every federal policy for its impact on individual children.

"We have not been a child-caring society, really. We pay a lot of lip service to being child-caring, but to my mind we have not conspicuously demonstrated a commitment to children," the 54-year-old cabinet officer said.

After her son's experience, one of the things she discovered "going on" was a lot of tracking—putting youngsters into slots by their early test scores.

"Kids ended up with labels that were in many respects almost as destructive as tattooing numbers on prisoners," said Mrs. Hufstedler, who was active both in local school affairs and on state education committees. "Kids become prisoners of labels, and people no

detailed data on the scores and incomes of 1977-78 test takers indicate that the ranking still holds firm.

The assertions that the ETS test system ranks people by individual merit does not stand up to the hard facts of student performance. In his massive study of 36,581 students, Dr. Astin found that, unlike the *SAT*, first-year grades did *not* correlate with parental income. A 1969 ETS study of 15,535 college-bound students found that actual accomplishments outside the classroom did not correlate with income either: "Although educational ambitions were significantly related to accomplishments in several areas, family income was not. *That is, students from families with different incomes did not significantly differ in the number or level of accomplishments they reported.*" (Emphasis added.)

"This lack of a relationship between accomplishments and family background," wrote ETS researcher Leonard L. Baird in a 1979 summary of research in the field, "is supported by the National Merit studies which reported no significant correlation between these two types of variables in their samples. These results suggest that the accomplishment measures do not discriminate against disadvantaged students, although disadvantaged students do score lower on academic ability tests [i.e., ETS aptitude tests]."

Long since forgotten in the current climate of acceptance of ETS aptitude tests as measures of personal ability were the observations of the Commission on Financing Higher Education, which included the presidents of Brown, Stanford, Johns Hopkins, and two future ETS trustees, Harvard Provost Paul H. Buck and Commission Director John D. Millett. In 1952, the Commission wrote, *"These tests systematically penalize working-class youth*, because the problems of the tests are more familiar to middle-class than to working-class experience." (Emphasis added.)

By continuing to promote a class-determined test, ETS reduces the aspirations and opportunities of millions of working-class and poor people—without telling them why. ETS literature explains their condition by their low rank in "aptitude"; college catalogs explain it in terms of merit. But ETS's own statistics are the most telling; they document the ranking by *SAT* scores, in effect, as a ranking by social class—class in the guise of merit.

The power of ETS has been opened up to scrutiny and challenge by the passage, in 1979, of New York's truth-in-testing law, which requires public disclosure of internal test company studies of the tests' validity and data relating to possible cultural and class bias. It also requires the companies to inform test takers what their scores mean and how they will be presented to institutions, and to allow test takers, after scores have been sent out, to receive a copy of the test questions and the correct answers. New York State Senator Kenneth P. LaValle, who was the bill's prime sponsor, believes that by focusing new attention on testing, the bill will prompt schools to "look at the whole student rather than place such an emphasis on the test."

The interest in truth-in-testing is not limited to New York. The U.S. House of Representatives and at least 15 states are considering truth-in-testing legislation, and some testing programs, such as the *LSAT*, have extended their compliance with the New York law nationwide.

The rise of the truth-in-testing movement sets the stage for the emergence of a national reconsideration of the power to define potential, which has been steadily and quietly accumulated by psychometricians and their institutional leader, ETS. ETS is well aware of these conditions and is preparing a revealing response. A 1978 internal memo from President Turnbull enumerated criticisms of ETS and testing and discussed strategy on "how to invalidate, obviate, counter, [and] rebut them." ETS was about to enter an epoch of public questioning, Turnbull wrote, when reasoned discussion would not be adequate to sustain the corporate defense.

ETS has traditionally taken a rather dignified—even lofty—and apolitical approach to matters of public controversy. I believe we need to retain our dignity but realize that the problems lie much more in the realms of communications and politics

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longer think about them to find out what they really can do."

She calls it "a personal bias: I have never had much use for true-false tests, nor for multiple-choice tests. I recognize they are easy ways mechanically to grade large numbers of papers. In many respects, they test the ability of people to take true-false tests. But for the imaginative person, these tests are very difficult to take, unless one is simply asking for rote information.

"If you really want to know whether the person knows the date of the Battle of Hastings, you can say, '1066—true or false?' and people can pass or fail."

She said she did not mean to criticize the schools "nor to say tests don't have their use. They do. But they also have been seriously misused in a number of circumstances. They do not test all kinds of subjective matters—judgment, intuition, creativity, imagination."

Mrs. Hufstedler does not believe that declining scores on the *SAT* and the National Assessment of Educational Progress prove the quality of America's schools is eroding.

"I view statistics with somewhat less awe than a lot of people do," said the former judge, who noted that crime can appear to be waxing or waning, depending on how crime indexes are constructed.

It may be that it is time for us to think about developing educational indicators, she said, like the business indicators that provide signals on whether the economy is up or down.

Today's children may not be good spellers, she said, but that is not emphasized in a society where "people who can be clever with words orally get more points than someone who is a meticulous writer. While I happen to be ensorcelled with the written word, I'm not prepared to say that must be the national value norm," she said, explaining for a reporter that *ensorcelled* means enchanted.

Everyone needs basic reading skills, she added, but a painter may "write creatively by using a brush, and it doesn't make any difference necessarily whether that person could win a spelling bee."

—Christopher Connell, *Associated Press.*

This article was released by the Associated Press on January 17, 1980.

than in logic and that the solutions are going to be found (or the battles lost) in hot arenas rather than in cool reason.

ETS has pursued its "hot arenas" strategy by such tactics as making sensational and unsupportable threats about the impact of truth-in-testing (such as the claim that the New York bill would "destroy" equating—a position abandoned by ETS technicians as soon as the bill was passed) and suggesting that advocates of testing reform are in fact pursuing a sinister "hidden agenda." On a more subtle level, ETS strategists are determined to make it seem that defense of the principles of standards, excellence, and the intelligent use of information is necessarily equivalent to defense of the ETS test system.

But ETS should not be given an intellectual monopoly to complement its economic one. It should not be allowed to define the choices in terms of ETS or nothing. Rather the choices should involve the question of which elements of the current test system or alternative systems should be maintained and which should be discarded. For instance, while the national network of testing centers provides a convenient and useful function, there is no reason why the offerings in those centers must be limited to ETS multiple-choice tests.

Growing consumer interest in the power of ETS is likely to reach a critical stage before long. We would like to offer some important considerations for that evolving national debate.

1 What are the effects of restricting the information system (that is, the test center network and information-processing facilities now controlled by ETS) to multiple-choice tests developed and chosen by a single organization? Limiting the information-gathering instruments to multiple-choice tests unfairly restricts the means by which individuals can demonstrate their skills and potential Must reflections of student talent pass through ETS? Cannot essays (or scientific problem-solving exercises), for example, be sent to individual schools who could decide for themselves what they are looking for in the applicant—be it creativity, facility with the language, or analytic ability? As many educators have pointed out, reliance on multiple-choice tests can actually work against the development of these skills and encourage instead the mastery of the peculiar requirements of multiple-choice test taking.

2. What are academic and other institutions trying to accomplish with their admission policies? Precisely what goals and whose interests do those policies actually serve? Reliance on ETS tests raises basic questions about an institution's purposes, and students, parents, workers, and taxpayers should be asking them directly through meetings and discussions with admission officials. Among the key questions to be investigated from campus to campus:

- How important are the tests in the admissions process? What are the actual formulas used? How does the school account—if at all—for the tests' tendency to distribute scores along class and ethnic lines?
- What kinds of students are excluded through reliance on the tests?
- What does the institution claim to gain from requiring the test? How does test performance measure up against the institution's chosen criterion (such as predicting first-year grades), and how important is the criterion in the first place?

3. Should applicants have to bear the costs of the tests? One reason why colleges and universities have come to rely so heavily on the tests is that the tests do not cost them anything. Fees, on the other hand, can be a barrier for low-income students and provide a political weapon to the test industry, which can threaten fee increases when asked to change its procedures (as ETS and the College Board have done in response to truth-in-testing).

4. Is the ETS ranking really a meritocratic ranking? What is the purpose of claiming that it is? What is the purpose of demanding that alternative admission standards rank candidates in a similar fashion? The theory that the use of multiple-choice national admission tests produces a ranking by merit is not sustained by the evidence. Is it rational to rank applicants and thereby affect their long-term prospects with tests that provide only an 8 to 15 percent improvement over blind chance in the prediction of a short-term criterion such as first-year grades? The evidence suggests that the choice of the standard of merit—such as the tests—may depend on which class one is interested in serving. Selection by previous grades instead of scores, for example, would increase the proportion of working-class students admitted. Selection on the basis of previous accomplishments, ETS's own research has indicated, would virtually eliminate the class bias now inherent in selection by ETS aptitude tests.

5. Can significant reform be implemented given ETS's current position? ETS has proven remarkably resistant to change, even when proposed by test system insiders. Among the proposals that ETS officials and trustees have offered and ETS has rejected in the last few years: implementation of truth-in-testing style disclosure system; turning ownership of test scores and thereby control over their use over to test takers; phasing out the *SAT* in favor of an assortment of smaller tests in particular subject and skill areas; and abandoning the claim to measure such intangible qualities as "aptitude."

The ETS test system has operated for years as a large, powerful, and entrenched mechanism that served the interests of its managers; offered convenience, prestige, and political justification to its clients; and, as long as consumers were not organized, made powerful enemies. ETS has an overwhelming economic and political interest in maintaining the current test system. But despite tremendous influence in the educational community, ETS recognizes that the matter of its future has moved into arenas outside of its domination.

President Turnbull wrote in his 1978 strategy memo, ". . . although many of the criticisms grow out of ignorance and some are wrong, others have substance. Moreover, the furor is widespread and shows no signs of going away. . . The situation," President Turnbull concluded, "is more unlikely to blow over." □

This article was excerpted and adapted from *The Reign of ETS: The Corporation That Makes Up Minds* by Allan Nairn and associates (The Ralph Nader Report on the Educational Testing Service). The full 250-page report may be obtained for $30 from the Learning Research Project, P.O. Box 1903, Washington, DC 20036.

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Meet Rudy Flores

"Whatever it is, I'll do it if it'll help that student understand what I'm trying to say," says Rudy Flores with a smile. While he speaks, his fingers move steadily, showing how his statement looks in signed English.

Rudy Flores teaches deaf children at Birney Elementary School in Tacoma, Washington, which draws deaf pupils from a wide area and teaches them alongside the hearing.

What is it like to teach the deaf? Today's Education *writer Jane Power recently asked Rudy Flores that and other questions about his work.*

You are hearing, and your students are deaf. How do you communicate with one another?

We use total communication, which is sign language and speech at the same time.

Total communication means that I'll use whatever method I have to use to get a student to understand. I'll use finger spelling, letter by letter. I'll use sign language, whole words at a time. I'll use mime. I'll draw a picture on the board. If I have to stand on my head and spit BB's, I'll do it if it'll help a student understand what I'm trying to say.

When your students sign, do they use Ameslan [American Sign Language, which uses English words but has its own syntax]?

Not all the time. When we're working on language, we use signed English instead. We sign it as you would say it in regular English, using the right sign to indicate the right tense.

When we're doing reading, the kids sign the words exactly as they're written. When we're doing language, they're going to sign the sentences properly, and they're going to write them properly. I expect it.

Where does Ameslan fit in?

Ameslan is the easy way to say things. Instead of signing *I don't know,* they shrug their shoulders. If we hearing people can do that and find it acceptable, why can't we allow deaf people the same liberty?

If deaf kids are in a social situation with other deaf kids, they're going to pick up Ameslan. They're going to talk the easiest way they know how, they're going to have noun-verb disagreement, the sentence structure is going to be all turned around. You can no more stop them from doing that than you can tape an oral kid's mouth shut.

When deaf kids meet with older deaf people, too, Ameslan is what they're going to use. They're going to value that experience of having contact with an older deaf person. So I don't discourage the Ameslan at all. I think it's part of deaf kids' total language learning.

Do you try to get all the deaf students to talk?

Talking is always a goal and an important one, but we have to keep in mind that it may not be realized.

At the end of last year, we took our kids to McDonald's. We lined them up outside, gave them each a dollar from some money left over in a fund, and said, "OK, go."

Some of the kids were shocked, their eyes got big, they got scared: "What am I going to do?"

"Go in and buy something to eat."

Sooner or later, they have to realize that they are going to be in situations when the teacher is not going to be there, their mother is not going to be with them.

And they all got to eat?

They all got to eat. The kids who couldn't speak very clearly signed their orders to the kids who could talk.

We didn't say anything; we just sat back and let them go. "He wants a hamburger, and he wants a Coke."

We weren't trying to put them on the spot, but just to see what their reaction would be and how they'd handle it. They did pretty well—we were proud of them.

Do they talk at all in class discussion?

Yes, they all talk, and I understand the kids in my classroom when they speak even when I'm not watching their hands. Even with the ones who don't have great speech, I understand what they're saying because I have contact with them every day.

When they talk, do they sign at the same time?

Yes.

So that the other kids can understand them by looking at them?

A whole lot of repetition is inherent in the learning process.

Yes. They learn how to sign almost as fast as we can talk. It takes time to learn it, but it's not that hard.

Does everyone at the school know sign language?

All the teachers have a working knowledge of it; all the students are learning sign language. Starting in kindergarten, we have a half hour a day for every class.

We offer free sign language classes to parents and anyone who's interested. Two of our teachers give classes on Wednesday nights, and everyone comes in. Our kitchen helper was taking it; our school secretary was taking it; we had parents there.

Do you ever find yourself signing a little bit when you're just having a conversation?

Not in Ameslan or signed English, but I finger spell all the time. I'll be watching television and finger spelling the news, maybe. It's fun, and it's good to practice finger spelling, because a lot of deaf people don't know some of the word signs we use. If you finger spell, letter by letter, everybody is going to understand what you're saying.

Which classes do deaf and hearing students take together at Birney?

We combine the deaf and hearing students all the way through school for social activities, art, PE. Last year my fourth grade class had two and a half hours a week, on Thursdays, of art, music, and PE with the regular fourth grade class.

One year our deaf sixth grade classes were included in a math program for an hour a day with the regular sixth grade class. They did quite well. This year our fourth grade class is integrated into one district-wide math program.

Math is an area that deaf students usually don't have a whole lot of problems with. Usually deaf kids seem real rigid about what they learn, and in math, everything is pretty cut and dried. There's not a lot of language involved, as long as you understand the concepts.

English is different. So many things are changeable in the English language. If you put in a question mark or an apostrophe, it changes the whole meaning. It's hard for them to understand that. I've had just one class that could be involved in a reading program with hearing students, because their language was that good, their ability to write was that good.

How did you teach the music lessons?

Some people think that deaf people can't hear a thing. Well, that's not so, but depending upon their hearing range, they're going to be hearing different things, low-frequency, high-frequency, or frequencies in between. So it's hard.

I had a deaf aide, and we worked out the signs for the words of the songs ahead of time. Then she read my lips as I played my guitar and sang, and she signed the words.

We taught all the kids—the hearing ones, too—the signs for each song. We taught the deaf kids the signs, and we said, Now, you be the teacher and

show this kid the right signs, and you'll both sing together.

The value of it was, one, the deaf child was helping someone learn something, and two, a hearing kid came in contact with a deaf kid and learned that everybody is the same. Then they all sang as a group. We had a lot of fun with that.

How can deaf kids sing?

They use their voices, they try to sing the words, but they're off-key because they can't hear or read music. If you play a chord, though, all the kids can put their hands on the wood and feel it, and everyone is signing the song together.

You know, it's uncanny about the vibrations. Some of the deaf are fantastic dancers. They turn the music up all the way, and they can feel the vibrations coming through the air, in the floor. They can feel the beat, and it is not that hard to dance to it.

Rhythm is something you don't have to be deaf to not have or to have. A lot of people that hear can't dance for anything. It's the same for deaf people. Some can, some can't.

How do the deaf and the hearing kids get along together?

When I first arrived at Birney, there were so many problems. The kids were continually fighting, harassing, teasing. The little deaf kids would get together and pick on the hearing kids, and the hearing kids would get together and push the deaf kids.

The fights start because the kids don't know how to talk to each other. They don't know how to communicate, so they just express their feelings by hitting out.

One of the things that we've been working on with our deaf kids is teaching them the language of feeling, so they can let people know they don't like something or how it makes them feel.

We're also getting the kids together in school activities, giving them an opportunity to realize, Hey, this guy is all right, or She can run just as fast as I can, or He's really cute. All the things that are important to fourth and fifth and sixth graders.

It's amazing, the change that's taken place. There are almost no problems of behavior or of compatibility between the hearing kids and the deaf kids now.

How big are your classes, or the classes of deaf students in general?

They are all either six or seven. My class last year was a class of six. By state law, the maximum is seven.

And you have them for the full day?

They come in at 9, and they're gone at 2:30. I'd like to have them from 8 to 4.

I'd love to have year-round school, because when the kids are home for even two months, I have to start all over again with them when they return to school, doggone it. I just have to start plugging away and refresh, refresh, review, review.

So that frustrates me, I don't like it. I don't feel that I need two or three months' vacation. After two weeks, I'm ready to go back.

Really?

Really, I am.

We've been hearing so much about burned-out teachers lately.

Well, a whole lot of whatever you're doing as a teacher is a matter of attitude—as long as you're not in physical danger. If you tell yourself, Doggone it, it's just November 29, and I can't wait till Christmas break, then when Christmas break comes you're ready for it. You've talked yourself into being just as tired, just as burned out as you can be.

So I think teachers do it to themselves. Maybe that's wrong. I don't know.

Does deafness create other problems for students besides just not being able to hear?

A lot of other problems. They have trouble developing the concept of their relation to their surroundings. As I understand it, little children use their hearing to do that. They only see what they're looking at, but they hear from all around. That is how they place themselves.

Then, the deaf are so alone. It's hard to imagine the isolation of a deaf person. You have little or no speech, and you hear almost nothing. If you and the people around you don't know sign language, your ability to communicate is so limited. You go down the street, and you hear nothing. Everything is a void.

It must be hard to feel at home in a silent world.

The best-adjusted deaf kids that I've come in contact with are those that come from deaf families, because from the outset, the parents know how to communicate with a deaf person. Think of a little kid who at dinnertime, at play time, at bedtime, has no one to talk to. There is no verbal communication—just maybe a hug, maybe a kiss, maybe the kid throws a tantrum and gets a spanking. The parents have to learn how to communicate.

When you see kids who, because they're deaf, have emotional problems, you have to realize that their reality is much different from your own. That's what I think we have to deal with as teachers.

What are some differences you've found between teaching deaf kids and teaching hearing kids?

The deaf miss a lot socially, conceptually. You can never assume that they know anything.

Think about the way a student learns. A whole lot of repetition is inherent in the learning process, but most of it is audio repetition.

In teaching deaf kids, I make sure that there is a continual visual and tactile repetition. I cannot assume, Well, I've given this information today, and now I'm going to push on. I've got to give it to them again and again.

And I've got to pretest, posttest, retention-test—then, by golly, I've got to find out, Did you get it? If you didn't, let's go back.

When I'm working with deaf students, I have to preteach vocabulary relating to a unit. If it's a math unit, the kids have to understand conceptually what a fraction is, what the numerator is, and also what the denominator is.

Whatever unit we're working on in reading, we learn the vocabulary words in it first. We have a pretest on Wednesday, we have a posttest on Friday, and we have a retention test down the line. So when the kids see a word, they're familiar with it.

Throughout the lesson they can interrupt to ask questions. If they have a question, I stop everything. I answer it.

Do you think that deaf students—or many of them—need so much individual attention that they really can't be in a class full of hearing kids all day?

That would depend totally on the kid. You can't say, All deaf kids can do this. I know a very, very successful deaf person who is now working in San Francisco, doing a children's program for the deaf.

He has good speech, he has fantastic vocabulary, he's very bright. He went to Birney when they just used to take the deaf kids and throw them in a regular hearing class.

I asked him, "How did you feel when you were going through Birney? What did you learn?"

And this was his answer:

I had great lipreading ability, and I got about 20 percent of everything that went on in class.

Everything depends on where they seat you. If they seat you in the front row, you're going to miss almost everything that every kid says, because you can't see their lips move.

If the teacher is turned sideways to you and his shoulder is in the way of his mouth, you don't get anything of what he says. If he turns around and is saying something as he writes on the board, you miss everything he says.

So you get about 20 percent if you're lucky, if you're watching everything that's going on, and if you happen to be sitting in a good spot.

Take a hard-of-hearing student who's got good speech, who's smart, who has good lipreading skills and a good self-image. Stick that kid in a classroom and let him or her go. That one probably will succeed.

But if a student's got a poor self-image, got poor speech, got lousy hearing, and the classroom teacher doesn't give him a lot of individual attention, that one probably will fail.

How did you become interested in teaching the deaf?

When I was in the military, down at Fort Sill, Oklahoma, the wife of one of the people I worked with was in teacher education at Jane Brooks School for the Deaf in Chickasha. That's an oral residential school for the deaf, with a teacher training program. I'd visit that couple, and I met deaf kids there.

After I finished my military, I went back to school, then my wife and I went to Europe for a year. When we came back, we ended up in her hometown, Maysville, Kentucky.

I did social work for a year and loved it, but I couldn't live on it. We were planning to have children, and the pay was terrible. I had to do something to make just a little bit more money, in case my wife wanted to quit work.

By that time I was interested in deaf education, so I went to graduate school. I taught a hearing class in Seattle one year, and I've been in Tacoma ever since.

Your family is Mexican. What was your experience with Spanish and English? Did it help you understand the problems of the deaf in any way?

My father always encouraged us to use English at home. Once in a while we used Spanish.

But I was really lucky. Until I was eight or nine, every summer we'd head for Grandma's house. And my grandmother would not speak English. If you wanted to eat, you'd better learn how to say it in Spanish.

It really helped me, because I learned how to communicate in Spanish with her. I wasn't afraid to use the language my family had used forever.

In reviewing each case, ask yourself, Is that what's good for this kid?

So the experience you've had with language has shown you—

People's experience with language is important. If they speak a language that isn't really very useful for talking with educators, it shouldn't just be destroyed. That is their reality—that's where their roots are, and that's how they communicate with their peers.

If I live in a barrio and I use English in the classroom, I should use it the correct way when I'm in the classroom. But when I get back home and my grandmother's there, I'm not going to use English with her. So why destroy my language? And I think that it is important for deaf students to know: Sign language is my own language.

Is there anything that teachers ought to be sure to remember when they get a deaf student in class?

We've had a few teachers that heard they were going to get some deaf students, part time, and panic set in: I can't do this, I don't know anything about them, I don't know how to teach them.

Well, for a deaf child, the most important thing is for the teacher to try to be accepting. Don't treat deaf children as special because they're deaf. Treat them like everyone else. If you pick them out as special, you're going to make some of the others antagonistic toward them.

A deaf student is going to present special problems. I would hope that there will always be some kind of interpreter in class so that the child can understand what's going on. I would hope that there will be some way to review, at the end of a given session, what went on in that classroom and to make sure that the deaf student understands the work.

This year, a neat thing happened in the sixth grade math class that has both deaf and hearing students: The teacher made the effort to use sign language.

I'd go by his room and see him up in front of the class, signing to tell the kids what to do in math. An interpreter didn't have to do it while the teacher just stood there because he didn't know sign language. The teacher was doing it, and that's neat.

That's what I think we look for—a shared responsibility and cooperation. You can't legislate or enforce that. There has to be a certain feeling within a group of people and within a building that supports that.

I think a lot of times we've legislated a lot of things we don't really think through, and that's a problem. You can legislate all you want, but if people don't want something, they're going to resist it.

How can people decide where to place a deaf child?

For a lot of deaf students the appropriate least restrictive environment is the self-contained special education classroom. So in reviewing each case, ask yourself, Is that what's good for this kid?

At Birney School, we have an occupational therapist, a physical therapist, a Ph.D. psychologist, a social worker, the principal, the teacher, and the parents who all work together to do what's best for a kid. We hash it out.

We're really lucky. We come to pretty good decisions about kids. Not all the time, but most of the time.

What are the prospects for a deaf student who finishes Birney and then finishes high school?

A lot of times, once our deaf students get out of high school—unless they happen to be exceptional students—they're left by the wayside. We don't have data about what happens to them. How many deaf youngsters are failing? What did we do wrong? Is it society, is it the school program, is it the teaching?

Sure, we have a certain number of kids that go to Gallaudet College for the Deaf in Washington, DC, or to the National Technical Institute for the Deaf in Rochester, New York. We have some who go to Seattle Central Community College for the excellent program that they have there. But that's a minority. Many crop up two or three years later with a bunch of kids and no jobs. And that's a crime.

But some of your own students are going to do pretty well after they leave school?

I've had whole classes of bright kids—that was a pleasure. And for example, I had one student who really had a knack for mathematics—a little Black girl with a bad temper, but just as sweet as she could be.

I hit math hard, because if a kid can't speak, that's a big strike against him. But if a kid with that deficiency has a math background, a lot of things are going to be open to him that don't involve talking.

So I'm really big on math. This girl really grasped it, and she's got a pretty good language base. In junior high, she was the only deaf kid in the school who was taking algebra class with the hearing kids. I was tickled to death, because she's going to fly. She's really got it.

Are there any special materials that teachers can use with deaf students?

They can order captioned films. The state library here has a whole series—films on health, history, all the old Disney films that are really neat—*Snow White, Pinocchio, Big Red.* The largest library of captioned 16mm films for the deaf is in the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped in Washington, DC.

Gallaudet College has the largest video collection and publishes a really nice signed English series which includes a dictionary that teachers can order for young students. The series has books like *The Three Little Pigs,* all the children's classics, written in sign language underneath the regular type.

Louie Fant puts out a good series of books on synonyms, and there are good books on idioms for the deaf. Those are really, really important.

Teachers who have never taught kids that have labeled handicaps may wonder what it might be like. What makes it better or harder or worse or more rewarding than teaching so-called normal children?

As far as the kids go, kids are kids. The responsibility of the teacher doesn't change. You're there to do a job, to teach kids the best way they can learn, whether it's through sign language or through speech. You figure out what the kid's problems are, if they're emotional, psychological, or physical. And you work around them or else try to figure out a way to make them positive and work for the kid, and you go.

You have to understand, of course, who you're working with. You have to understand the problems of the deaf and what to do. So maybe the training might be a little different. But it's all the same thing, you're teaching.

It doesn't change, it's teaching, and you get excited about it the same way. □

NEA Resolution B79-26
Communication Between the Hearing and the Hearing Impaired

The National Education Association believes that the lack of communications between the hearing and the hearing impaired has seriously detracted from the potential of a broadly distributed group to contribute fully to our total society—a mutual loss to all citizens.

The Association recommends that instruction be given to hearing students that will help them to understand the unique needs of all hearing impaired students, and will help hearing students communicate with hearing impaired students.

Free or Inexpensive

GENERAL MATERIALS

Biology

Student's Guide—Animals in Biology. Revised. Booklet designed for high school students about the proper care and treatment of laboratory animals. 1979. 8 pp. Five copies free (each additional copy, 25¢). Natl. Society for Medical Research, 1029 Vermont Ave., N.W., Washington, DC 20005.

Business Education

RPM Unlimited: A Business Machines Practice Set. Second edition. Dorothy Albertson. Designed to help students develop skills in the use of business machines and to familiarize them with the day-to-day activities of the business world. Includes teacher's manual and tests with key. 1980. 224 pp. $5.52. Gregg Div./McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1221 Avenue of the Americas, New York 10020.

Careers

Coming Alive from Nine to Five: The Career Search Handbook. Betty Neville Michelozzi. Offers practical information on pinpointing career interests and aptitudes, setting long- and short-term goals, and deciding on beginning and changing careers. Includes self-evaluation exercises, tips for writing effective résumés and developing good interviewing skills, and step-by-step procedures for successful and rewarding career planning and job hunting. 1980. 186 pp. $5.95. Mayfield Pub. Co., 285 Hamilton Ave., Palo Alto, CA 94301.

Drugs

Know About Drugs. Second edition. Margaret O. Hyde and Bruce G. Hyde. Presents latest scientific findings on drugs and their effects on young people. Discusses soft intoxicants, such as cigarettes and glue, and hard narcotics, such as angel dust, heroin, and cocaine. Examines the facts behind each threat to the natural maturation of children and adolescents. Fourth grade reading level. 1979. 63 pp. $7.95. McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1221 Avenue of the Americas, New York 10020.

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Educational brochure. Contains valuable facts about children's vision. Includes information on kinds of visual disorders and early detection and treatment of disorders. 1979. Free. Children's Eyesight Society, 7420 Westlake Terr., Suite 1509, Bethesda, MD 20034.

Language Arts

The following publications are available from the Natl. Council of Teachers of English (NCTE), 1111 Kenyon Rd., Urbana, IL 61801.

Attitudes, Language, and Change. Anne Ruggles Gere and Eugene Smith. Examines how teachers can improve students' spoken language. Discusses how to make use of research and how to cope with community pressures to use traditional grammar. Includes a bibliography that features works on dialect differences, linguistics for laypersons, spelling principles and variety, teaching materials about dialects, and works on attitudes about usage. 1979. 108 pp. $4.25 (price for NCTE members); $4.75 (price for nonmembers).

Classroom Practices in Teaching English, 1979-1980: How To Handle the Paper Load. Edited by Gene Stanford. Contains ideas from 27 writing teachers who teach at all levels of education in the United States and Canada. Explores the advantages of keeping a journal for developing writing fluency and points out ways to make journal assignments double as preparation for essays written for, and graded by, the teacher. Tells of effective approaches with classes ranging from remedial ones for junior high inner-city youngsters to those for college freshmen. 1979. 135 pp. $4.50 (price for NCTE members); $5 (price for nonmembers).

The following publications are available from Pitman Learning, Inc., 6 Davis Dr., Belmont, CA 94002.

Birdseye Mastery Masters. Beverly Cory. Four books: *Grammar and Usage, Phonics and Spelling, Word Meaning,* and *Word Structure.* Twenty-two spirit duplicating masters in each. 1980. 22 pp. $4.50 each.

Look It Up! 101 Dictionary Activities To Develop Word Skills. Nicholas P. Criscuolo. Includes activities for finding words, exploring dictionary definitions, and getting the most information from

(continued on page 73)

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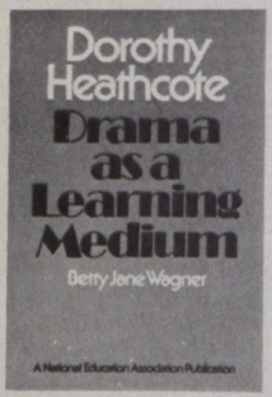

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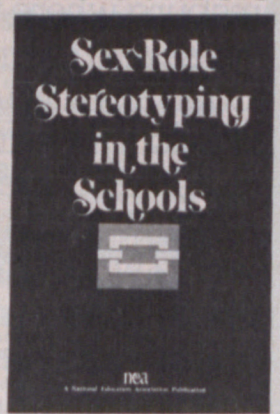
Sex Role Stereotyping in the Schools



NEA has produced a greatly expanded and more comprehensive edition of its very popular best-seller *Sex Role Stereotyping in the Schools.* This selection of background readings directs its readers to see sexism in an objective light . . . to examine what's happening in the schools . . . to encourage children to follow their interests and abilities as independent human beings, rather than as girls or boys. It is a balanced blend of criticism and suggestions for action. *(Revised Edition)*

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1979. 35 pp. $1 (quantity discounts available). Center for Information on America, Washington, CT 06793.

The following set of booklets on social issues is available from Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 381 Park Ave. S., New York 10016. Written in an easy-to-read style, each booklet gives a variety of views and resources for additional study. 28 pp each. $9.95.

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Military Budgets and Social Needs: Setting World Priorities

Nursing Homes: Strategy for Reform

The Promise of Justice—Legal Services for the Poor

Proposals for Prison Reform

Protecting Yourself Against Crime

Public Welfare—Facts, Myths, and Prospects

The Races of Mankind

The Rights of Patients

The Rights of Teenagers as Patients

Runaway Teenagers

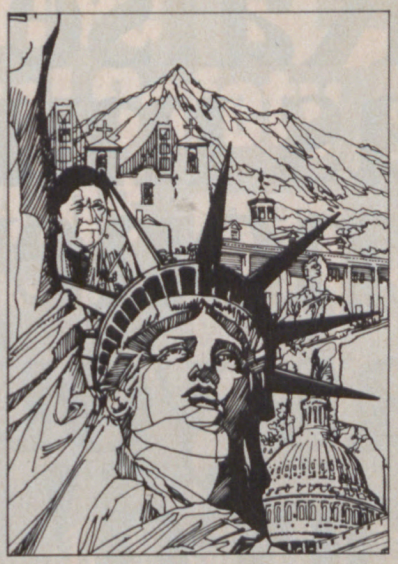
To Combat Child Abuse and Neglect

Understanding the Criminal Justice System

Unemployment: The Problem We Can Solve

Unmarried Teenagers and Their Children

(continued on page 75)



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Where Have the Farm Lands Gone? Shirley Foster Fields. Booklet. Discusses how one million acres—the equivalent of a half-mile strip of land from New York to California—of our nation's best farmlands are shifted every year to uses other than agriculture. Explores the effects of the continuing loss of farmlands as populations expand and the need for food increases. Highlights the importance of natural beauty and the values that derive from farm family life and living close to the land. Emphasizes local community action to protect farmlands from further loss. Designed for junior and senior high school students. 1980. 24 pp. Single copies free (25¢ each additional copy; orders must be prepaid). Information Director, Natl. Agricultural Lands Study, Room 5020, New Executive Office Bldg., 722 Jackson Pl., N.W., Washington, DC 20006.

FOR YOUR INFORMATION

Willard H. McGuire, NEA President; Terry Herndon, NEA Executive Director.

NEA memberships and annual dues: Active, $42; Associate, $21; Education-al Support, $21; Student, $6.50, through Student NEA Chapters only; Retired, $5 (those retired before 9/1/73 continue at $2); Staff, $21.

For further information about NEA membership, write to NEA Membership Records, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

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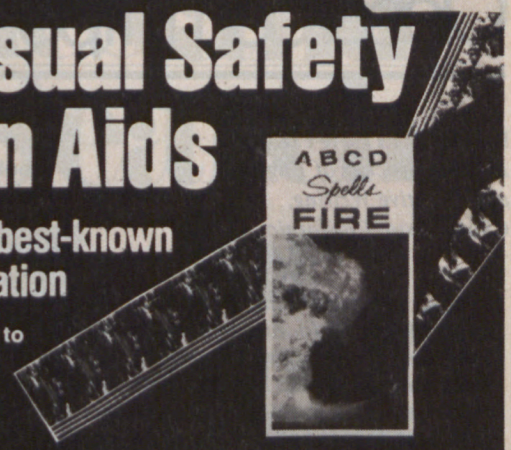

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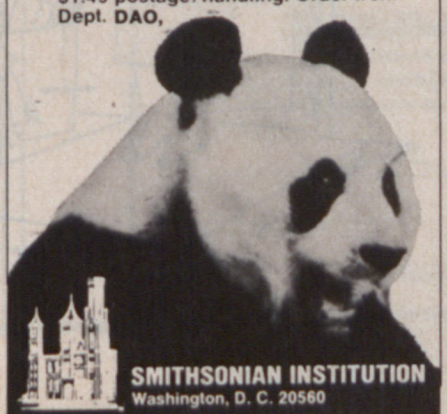

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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 11

Classroom Tips

By JANE TYLOR FIELD
Retired Teacher of English and Creative Writing, Chula Vista, California.

These are suggestions made or collected by Ms. Field, and she urges NEA members to send in interesting and useful teaching ideas for possible use in future issues of Today's Education. *Ms. Field asks that those who submit classroom tips keep copies of their material, as she cannot return the originals.*

Mail suggestions to Box CT, Today's Education, *1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.*

A sign hangs at the entrance to a northern Florida village. It says, "This town is a bird sanctuary."

Perhaps other towns could become bird or wildlife sanctuaries if their schools led the way. Science classes could tackle the project through several activities: writing letters, interviewing authorities, speaking to civic groups, making posters. Not the least important would be learning about local wildlife—finding out how to maintain existing species in the area and how to encourage new ones to come around.

Could sales of annual "sanctuary memberships" raise enough funds for birdbaths, feeders, food, and whatever else is necessary? If any schools try this, please let us know the results.

The Newport News, Virginia, public schools hold an annual Reading Fair, usually in a shopping mall, where up to 24,000 members of the community have attended. According to Martha S. Rourke, an assistant elementary school principal, about 150 psychologists, reading consultants, librarians, city officials, school personnel, and students assist in putting on the Fair. For those interested in staging a similar event, Dr. Rourke has the following suggestions:

1. Enlist city and school officials to read stories aloud in a "story corner"—some cozy, carpeted, out-of-the-way spot.

2. Have attractive booths where reading consultants, speech therapists, and school psychologists can tell parents about their work and its relationship to reading.

3. Have classroom teachers on hand to explain reading aids—games, sound and visual lessons—and to recommend books for students' leisure reading. Have materials available for audience participation.

4. Ask undergraduates in education to demonstrate to parents how to make reading aids their children can use at home.

5. Have elementary and high school students display their reading-related artwork and craftwork and write and present plays for those who attend the Reading Fair.

6. Have a Book Fair within the Reading Fair. Display and sell books that gain the interest of children of all ages.

7. Invite the local literacy council; library association; and local affiliates of such national organizations as the PTA, the American Association of University Women, and the International Reading Association to provide displays.

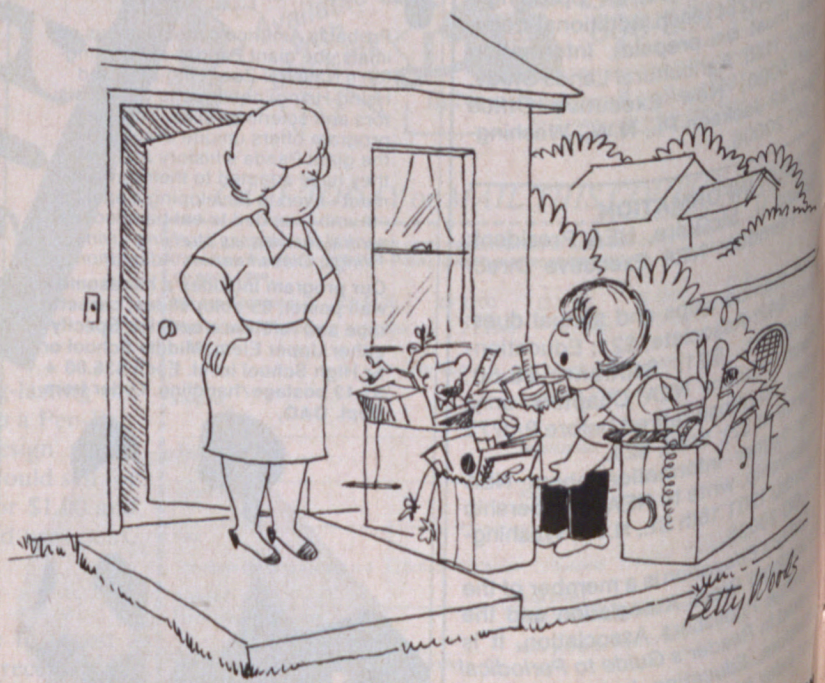
8. Use all possible media for publicity both before and after the event. At the Fair itself, put up large banners that will attract attention and have students dressed as storybook characters hand out materials explaining the purpose of the Fair.

9. Send thank-yous to everyone who contributes to the success of the Fair.

Edward W. Muench, a teacher in Toms River, New Jersey, suggests that students use classroom sets of the local newspaper for the following activities:

- Going on imaginary shopping trips among the advertisements and keeping track of the money they spend
- Discovering the main idea of stories
- Identifying (and then underlining) words and phrases in articles that show bias on the part of the reporter
- Identifying (and then circling) words in advertisements that appeal to the senses
- Analyzing the purposes of articles (Are they meant to inform, advise, help, entertain?)
- Underlining words in the comic strips they don't understand. (Comics are very sophisticated these days, with the political satire in "Doonesbury" and the occasional French lesson in "Peanuts.")
- Dramatizing the comic strips
- Using a map to locate places mentioned in newspaper stories.

Muench believes that local papers



"I cleaned out my desk at school."

have great appeal to students because youngsters enjoy reading about people they know who participate in community athletic leagues, the Four-H Club, etc.

Muench suggests that readers who want more ideas about how to use newspapers in the classroom write to Judy Hines, Director, American Newspaper Publishers Association Foundation, P.O. Box 17407, Dulles International Airport, Washington, DC 20041.

Patricia E. Cromwell of the Houston Independent School District also wanted her students to use the newspaper as an educational tool, but that was only her secondary objective. Her main objective was to encourage feelings of warmth and empathy among the students in her English classes.

A questionnaire had disclosed that the average student in her classes knew only five others in the class—even though the school's student body was small. To promote small-group activity that would be followed by productive large-group discussion, Ms. Cromwell decided on a plan that would make use of the local newspaper.

The survey had also revealed that 82 percent of the students lived in families that subscribed to a newspaper and that the students devoted almost 15 minutes a day to the paper. They were likely to read the comics, sports, news, entertainment, horoscope, and advice columns, and to read them in that order.)

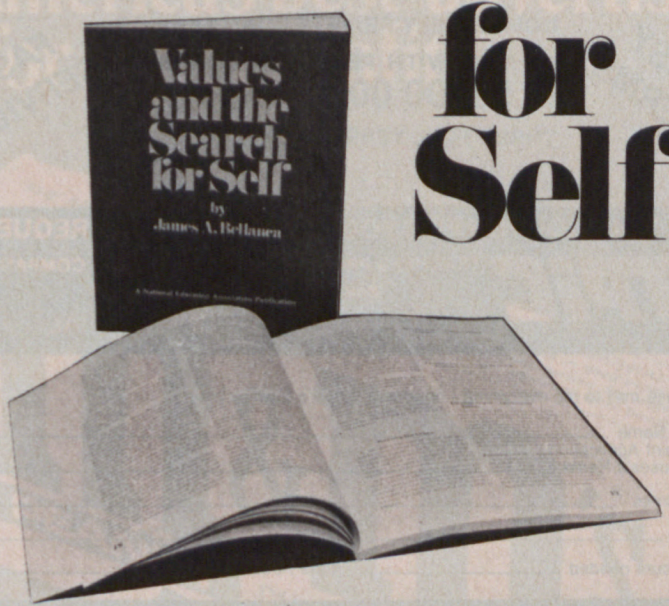
After Ms. Cromwell explained her objectives, the students decided to draw numbers and form groups of six or seven. They further specified that each group member should be able to speak without fear of ridicule, and they agreed to try to learn about each other's needs and interests.

Daily for 10 days, each group received three copies of the Houston Post. After 15 minutes of silent reading, students discussed articles they found interesting.

Each group member chose and completed an activity from Zenobia Verner's *Newsbook* (Clayton, 1978). Each group originated and executed a special project, e.g., a "Who We Are" booklet or a "live," newscast, which it presented to the entire class.

At the end of the 10 days, a follow-up assessment of students' newspaper reading practices at home revealed that students were spending relatively more time on the news. A similar follow-up on student relationships showed a modest improvement in classroom climate. □

Values and the Search for Self



James A. Bellanca, a teacher in the New Trier High School, Winnetka, Illinois, has written a truly remarkable book on values and valuing which is certain to have special implications for all educators . . . and, ultimately, their students.

The purpose of *Values and the Search for Self* is to help the reader become a more effective facilitator of learning. Based on the assumption that the most valuable learning is founded in self-knowledge and a resultant knowledge of others, the book presents a view of teaching as helping and caring within a supportive but flexible structure.

In this view, the goal of each individual teacher or student is the ability to direct her/his own learning. Such an ability involves a five-step process of exercising personal control, assessing needs, setting up goals, using resources, and evaluating outcomes.

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Letters

(continued)

teacher Marilyn Duff reviewed our book, *What's Happening to American English?* In the September-October 1979 issue, you published a letter from another English teacher, Leila Christenbury, who said that she "could hardly pay $8.95" for a book on English teaching containing "misconceptions." She listed five of these.

Judging from her letter, Ms. Christenbury read the review carelessly and the book not at all. Now your readers think that her list of "misconceptions" reflects our beliefs about English teaching.

It does not. For example, Ms. Christenbury erroneously reports us as believing that "the study of traditional grammar helps students to write better." On the contrary. In *What's Happening to American English?* we attack directly and in detail much of what passes as traditional grammar instruction. It is often wasteful, pedantic, and irrelevant to good writing.

To English teachers (and other interested people): If you disagree with our views on English teaching, fine. Write letters to us and the professional journals. But read our book first!

—Arn *and* Charlene Tibbetts, *Department of English, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.*

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—Don Sodo, *executive director, Foundation for Exceptional Children.*

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Books

Organization Without Authority: Dilemmas of Social Control in Free Schools by **Ann Swidler.** Harvard. 199 pp. $12.50.

It is time to analyze the counterculture of the sixties. One of its salient features was hostility to all forms of authority. This hostility led to much experimentation with organizations in which the authority principle had been abandoned. The free schools are just one instance. In this book, sociologist Ann Swidler examines two free public secondary schools located in Berkeley, California—one of them predominantly Black; the other, mainly upper-middle-class White.

What made these schools radically experimental was the fact that teachers and students were status equals. Teachers scarcely taught; instead they participated with students in projects of the students' choosing. Nor did they exercise disciplinary power. Instead students came and went as they pleased, more or less made their own rules—collectively—and determined for themselves how much as well as what kind of work they would demand of themselves. The reader gets the impression that the level of disorder in the schools was frequently high but that it fell far short of chaos.

Willingly deprived of authority, teachers relied on other resources to influence students in what they thought were desirable directions. Some were charismatic. All made use of their private personalities—as teachers always do—but in these schools the ideology of "openness and honesty" seemed to require that teachers "trade" intimate revelations about themselves for some degree of student compliance with their requests. Appeals to collective solidarity and common purpose—the middle-class school saw itself as a revolutionary vanguard—also helped to mobilize organization-maintaining behavior on the part of students.

As have many other scholars, Swidler tells us that the main purpose of the hidden curriculum of both free schools and open education is learning to live effectively with the peer group. The other main goal of the curriculum—not at all hidden—is learning to do self-initiated, autonomous work.

As for the outcomes of such schools, the accumulated evidence is that their results in academic areas are the same as or, in some instances, inferior to the results of more traditional schools. There is limited evidence that they produce students with superior social skills, but none that I know of that they produce people with superior capacity to perform self-initiated, autonomous work.

Turning to the sources of the free-school movement, Swidler presents two main hypotheses. The first holds that free schools were instituted to co-opt the students of the sixties and contain the potentially disruptive effects of their rebelliousness. According to the second, these schools represented an adaptation of the work of the school to the work patterns typical of highly educated people in a late industrial society.

In the latter view, free schools are important because their organization points to the future organization of prestigious work in a society increasingly dependent on new knowledge. Perhaps the trouble with this explanation is that in such work organizations, authority is based exclusively on expertise. In free schools, however, teachers forego even this kind of authority, leaving the school with no reason for being.

A short review cannot do justice to the complexity and insightfulness of Swidler's analysis. For anyone who wants to understand the free-school movement rather than moralize about it, this is an immensely clarifying essay.

Reviewed by **Leila Sussmann,** *professor of sociology, Tufts University, Medford, Massachusetts; author of* Tales Out of School: Implementing Change in the Elementary Grades.

Summer Learning and the Effects of Schooling by **Barbara Heyns.** Academic Press. 326 pp. $21.

Barbara Heyns has written a lengthy report on a study she made of the effects of summer school on the "cognitive growth" of children in a sample of schools in one school system. The subject is worth pursuing. For one thing, the traditional summer vacation is increasingly looked on as an anachronism. If it were to become clear, therefore, that summer school made important contributions to student learning—particularly to the learning of those who appear to have difficulties—that would be all to the good.

But Heyns's findings do not respond with much confidence to that issue or to anything else germane to the objectives of American education. Studies of the effects of summer school (or any other mechanism) on learning are not likely to be very productive unless the investigators make explicit their assumptions about the following issues:

- The objectives of American schools in promoting cognitive learning
- The best instructional strategies for accomplishing these objectives
- The best ways of assessing achievement of these objectives
- Acceptable levels of cognitive achievement.

On this last question, Heyns would likely respond that grade equivalency, which was her criterion, represents an acceptable level of achievement. But here the key question should be, How useful is the index of grade equivalency?

As with summer vacations, it is becoming increasingly clear that the graded school is an anachronism. Why packaging education in 10-month parcels is better than in 6- or 4- or 12-month parcels has never been demonstrated. Also, the idea that learning, cognitive or any other kind, is linear and can be "temporally" determined with confidence is just not supportable. Even worse, Heyns shreds the year's growth in-a-year criterion into months, even weeks. At one point she actually reports a statistic of just two weeks' cognitive growth!

Since the criterion for growth in the study is the score on one of nine subtests of an achievement test, the reported "growth" is likely to be based on schooling that lasted no more than a couple of hours. When, in addition, one takes into account that a change in the answers to only two or three items on a standardized test can move a student's score 10 or more percentage points, one gets the impression that Heyns's manipulation of "metrics" is analogous to researching the last half hour of the Renaissance.

As if the misguided use of grade equivalents weren't enough, the particular subtest that she chose makes the whole effort at measuring cognitive growth ludicrous. For reasons she tries unsatisfactorily to justify, Heyns has used as the criterion of learning the

vocabulary subtest of the Metropolitan Achievement Test. If ever there was a supreme example of a test that reduces children's cognitive growth to a simplistic monolith, this must be it. It would be bad enough to use an entire standardized test for that purpose. To make a bad process worse, however, she has compared loss of vocabulary (based on the subtest items) over the summer vacation for White and Black students and concluded that Black students have greater learning losses than Whites. What an opportunity for truth-in-testing, were it available, to expose the content of tests that lead to this sorry state of affairs. Both the teaching profession and the public should find it highly instructive to examine the vocabulary items used as an analog in this flimsy comparison of what is called cognitive growth.

Heyns would have done well to be guided by her own caveat: "In order to infer patterns of learning from standardized achievement tests, many of the commonsense notions about what constitutes learning must be held in abeyance."

A number of significant and essential "commonsense notions," had they *not* been held in abeyance, would have advised her not to proceed—at least not with the research model employed. It's a shame, too, that she went ahead, because Heyns concludes that schools do make a difference in student achievement even when socioeconomic status is controlled. Another voice in support is always helpful on this point, although many of us have all along known it to be true. We have been aware of both the poor instrumentation and the poor methodolgy of, for example, the Coleman studies that concluded the contrary. What we don't need is equally poor instrumentation and methodology to refute Coleman. And that is what the Heyns study seems to have succeeded in bringing together.

The dust jacket says *Summer Learning* is likely to become a classic in the field. I think not, and I hope not. If this were a classic, it would indicate that the status of research on learning and the effects of schooling is infinitely more primitive than I am willing to accept.

Reviewed by **Bernard McKenna,** *senior professional associate, NEA Instruction and Professional Development.*

Empty Pages: A Search for Writing Competency in School and Society by **Clifton Fadiman** and **James Howard.**

(continued on page 82)

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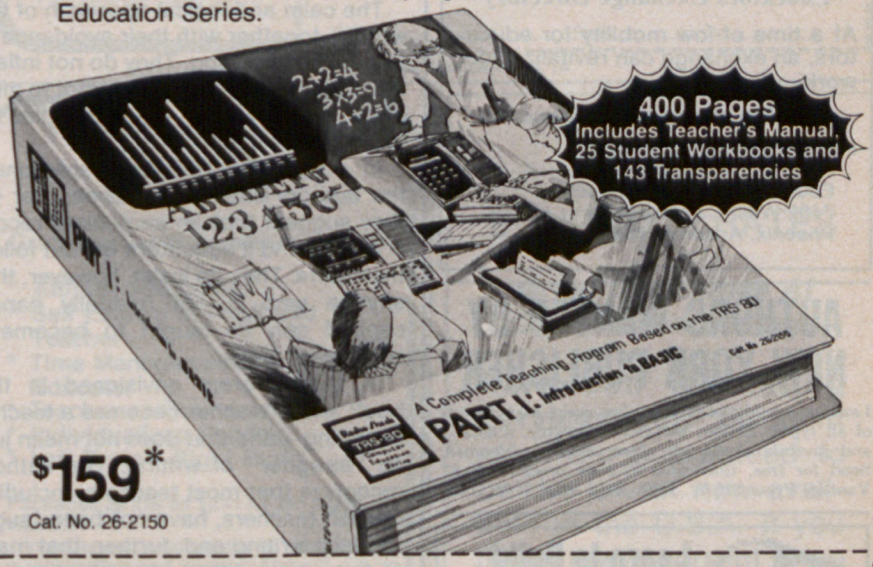

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Books

(continued)

Fearon-Pitman. 176 pp. $7.95; paper, $5.95.

This book deserves to be read *widely.* I emphasize widely, for the title of the book and the general assumption that writing is the province of English teachers are likely to result in a somewhat limited audience for this work. That would be unfortunate. While the authors do indeed have an important message for teachers of English, they address much of this book to educators of all disciplines.

In seven chapters, the authors take a calm and reasoned look at the decline in writing competency and the causes for that decline. They consider the cases for and against attacking the problem and suggest ways in which the trend can be reversed. Finally, they cite some exemplary programs now in operation.

The calm and logical approach of the writers, together with their avoidance of jargon, is refreshing. They do not inflate the problem nor do they attempt to minimize it. They face the difficulties of improving writing honestly.

In suggesting possible "solutions," the authors offer no panaceas nor do they suggest that an immediate recovery is at hand if educators will but follow their dicta. They do insist, however, that anyone who is not mentally handicapped can be taught to become a competent writer.

In the program envisioned in this book, every teacher becomes a teacher of writing—and that does not mean just an "assigner" of writing. The authors recognize that most teachers, including English teachers, have not been taught to teach writing and, further, that many of them are neither competent writers themselves nor prepared to teach their students to become competent writers.

If a teaching staff is to commit itself to the goals the authors present, administrators must strongly support efforts to reach those goals and teachers must have meaningful, continuing in-service programs. One of the basic assumptions of the authors is that "all teachers (and even administrators) are or should be, even if not primarily, teachers of English and therefore, to some degree, of writing."

The authors give brief but significant consideration to two aspects of writing that are often overlooked. First, they recognize that learning to write will inevitably involve writing to learn. Second, they assume that "clear and effective writing is not simply a skill or a socio-economic advantage. Because it expresses the integrity (or dishonesty) of an intellectual process, it is a moral activity."

No doubt each reader will find statements with which to take strong exception or areas that the authors seem to gloss over or treat superficially. In spite of this, or perhaps because of this, the book is well worth reading. Too many books require nothing more than passive reading; this one invites reaction and action.

Reviewed by **Ruth D. Hallman,** *chair, English Department, Walter E. Stebbins High School, Mad River Township, Ohio.*

Rites of Fall: High School Football in Texas. Photographs by **Geoff Winningham.** Text by **Al Reinert.** Commentary by **Don Meredith.** 176 pp. University of Texas Press. $24.95; paperback, $14.95.

High School: U.S.A. by **Jim Richardson.** St. Martin's Press. 187 pp. $19.95; paperback, $8.95.

Rites of Fall and *High School: U.S.A.* are both picture books, with lots of full-page black-and-white photographs that depict (mostly) small town life in Texas and Kansas respectively. Winningham's Texas photographs, almost entirely of activity on or near the football field, are of very high quality; his sense of timing is superb. *High School: U.S.A.*, though it has plenty of football scenes, is organized like a high school yearbook and follows the class of 1979 through their senior year. Comments made by members of the class provide the picture captions; they give a youthful and emotional aura to the collection of photographs.

Obviously, neither volume is aimed at the school market. Both books are likely, however, to have special appeal to high school faculty and students. *High School: U.S.A.* will, for one thing, make its adult readers nostalgic for their own high school days. *Rites of Fall*, in addition to documenting the importance of football to the high school community, also demonstrates to budding photographers the value of anticipating—and waiting for—the right moment to make a shot.

Reviewed by **Lee Moyne Mark,** *photography teacher, Pasadena (California) High School. Mark is a recent winner of the National Photography Instructors Association's award for outstanding teaching of photography.*

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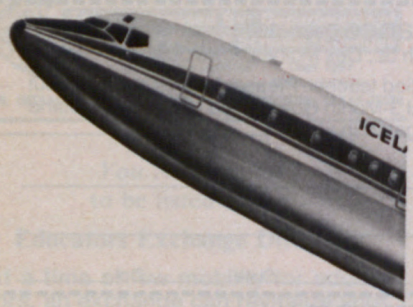

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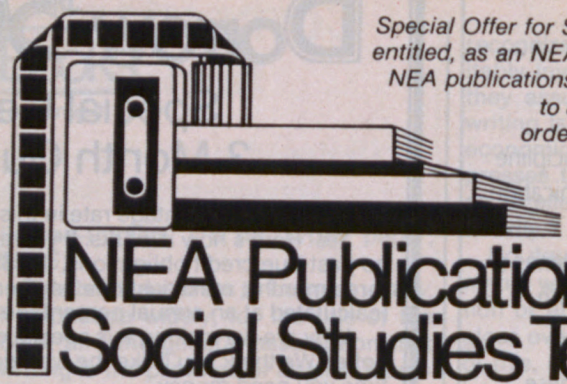

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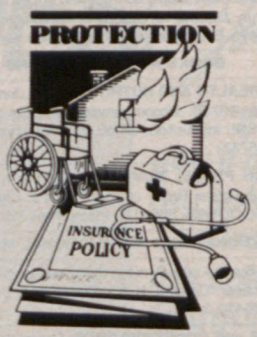

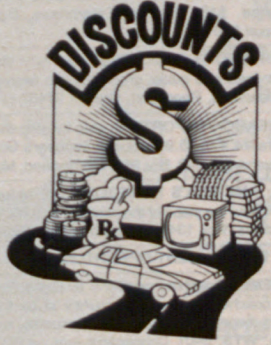

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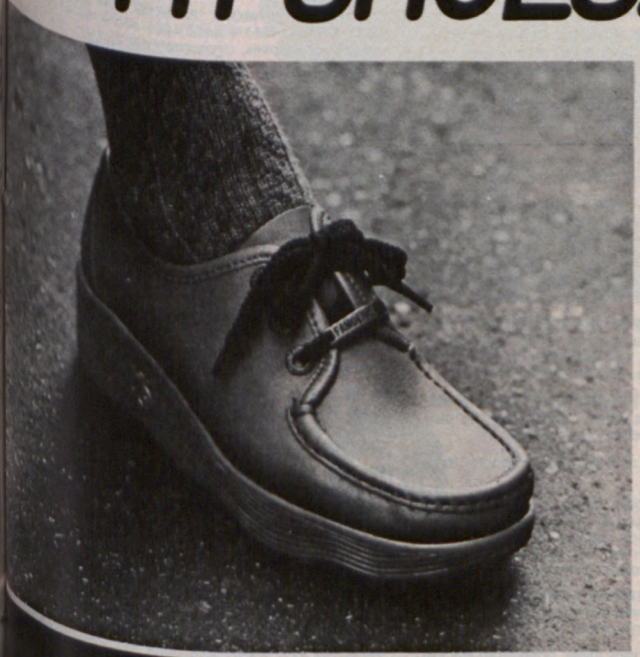

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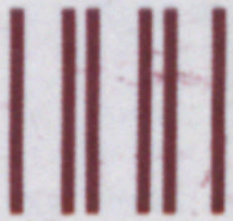

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